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ABSTRACT

Representatives from major institutions teaching African languages convened to discuss the design of African language textbooks and to propose guidelines for the writing of new textbooks and evaluation of existing ones. Conference papers include: "Language Acquisition Theory and Materials Construction" (Stephen Krashen); "The Structures of Verbal Meaning" (Janet K. Swaffer); "How Should We Teach Hausa" (Russell G. Schuh); "Considerations for Self-Instructional Language Material for Threshold Level Acquisition" (Ivan R. Dihoff); "Language as Communication: The Socio-Cultural Aspect of Language Teaching" (Joan Maw); "Students' Wants and Needs for Grammar Instruction" (Carol Myers Scotton); "On Categorizing Language Courses: Reconciling Language Characteristics and Performance Expectations" (Patrick R. Bennett, Ann Biersteker); "African Language Recorded Materials Assessment at the University of Wisconsin, Madison" (Hazel Carter); "Reviewing Swahili Textbooks" (Ann Biersteker); "Reviewing Berber Courses" (Patrick R. Bennett); "Development of Intermediate and Advanced Materials" (William R. Leben); and "On Teaching Tone Comprehension" (James E. Redden). Conference recommendations are also included. (MSE)

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THE DESIGN AND EVALUATION OF AFRICAN LANGUAGE LEARNING MATERIALS

Proceedings of the Spring 1984
Conference on Developing
Guidelines for the Evaluation
of
African Language Learning Materials

Edited
by
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This volume is dedicated to Joseph Mabwa,
our friend and colleague.

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To each, well done and thank you.

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION: BACKGROUND TO THE CONFERENCE
David Dwyer, Michigan State University

1.0 Introduction

On April 13 and 14, 1984, representatives from the major institutions teaching African languages in the United States came together on the campus of Michigan State University to discuss the design of African language textbooks and to propose guidelines for the writing of new textbooks and the evaluation of existing ones (see Appendix X for a listing of participants). This volume contains the proceedings of that conference: the papers presented and the recommendations.

2.0 Rationale for a Guidelines Project

This project, funded by the U.S. Department of Education with additional support from the National Endowment for the Humanities, represents the third stage of a general project by the Africanist language community in the United States under the leadership of Michigan State University to systematize African language instruction in this country in response to the special demands placed on this field, described below.

2.1 Problems of Teaching African Languages in the United States

Africa is a continent of about 475 million people living in 42 independent nations, speaking more than 2,000 distinct languages, and practicing more different cultures with more different histories, philosophies, literatures and sciences than any other comparable area in the world. This cultural diversity

makes Africa an extremely rich and important world resource, yet it poses problems to those, both foreign and African, sincerely interested in furthering world knowledge about the continent and its people.

One needs to approach Africa on its own terms, to speak to its people using their own languages. One would not demand less of a European or Asian culture, yet in both those areas we generally encounter the tradition of a national language. The study of China involves Chinese, France, French, Iran, Farsi. We in the United States expect our world scholars to be taught these national languages so that they can have full access to the products of these societies. But the study of Nigeria, with its 400 languages, or Sierra Leone, with its nine, poses a serious challenge: We obviously do not have the resources in this country to provide instruction in all African languages.

Which ones should we teach? What should be our national policy on what African languages should be taught, how often, where, and how? As a first step in answering these questions, we must determine what is required in the way of resources to teach a given African language and what is available at this time. As a first approximation, let us take the more familiar example of studying a European language.

A teacher of French, for example, has no other career interest than to teach the language and its literature and to publish the results of his or her research. Ideally, this teacher is a fluent if not a native speaker. The variety of textbooks from which one may choose are assembled by experienced

teachers profiting from solid linguistic analysis and from extensive classroom teaching of the language. A large number of students are seriously interested in studying French, not only as future specialists but also because they believe a knowledge of that language is beneficial to their education or career. The sheer number guarantees that there will be a French department on virtually every college campus in the country. This in turn guarantees that French language specialists will be maintained year in and year out on those campuses and that new materials for teaching and learning French will appear frequently. Although the demand for Asian languages is not so great, we still find Oriental language departments in numerous U.S. institutions of higher learning. Yet, as concerns Africa, we find only one sub-Saharan language, Swahili, has sufficient student demand to be offered on campuses other than those offering a specialty in black African studies.

2.2 Response to the Problems.

The unique situation of the teaching of African languages in the United States has led to the recognition that, to provide efficient and effective instruction, the task must be approached systematically by the community of African language teachers.

The areas in need of attention are:

- 1) Identify priority languages to be taught
- 2) Identify resources (human, institutional, and material) available
- 3) establish guidelines for evaluating teaching materials
- 4) evaluate available materials and recommend materials needed
- 5) examine teaching methods and skills

Work along these lines can be said to have begun in 1961 with the Conference on Neglected Languages (Fife and Nielson 1961). Thereafter, Africanists began to recognize the uniqueness of the situation and the need for conferences and workshops devoted to the problems posed by teaching African languages. These later gatherings include the Kittamagunde Conference in 1974 (Hodge and Spears 1975), the Baltimore meeting of center directors and African language coordinators (1979), the Task Force on Less Commonly Taught Languages (Brod 1980), the Directions and Priorities Conference in 1979 (Dwyer and Wiley 1980), and the 1984 Guidelines Conference at Michigan State University (Dwyer 1985).

2.21 Identifying Language Priorities

Early work on language priorities tended to combine the task of identifying materials needs for African languages in general with that of determining which of Africa's roughly 2,000 languages ought to be made available for study in the United States. We can point to the 1979 Michigan State University conference, Directions and Priorities for the 80's, attended by representatives of the ten federally funded African Studies Centers and those from other universities sponsoring the teaching of African languages. Criteria were established (based on political, cultural, and social importance; number of speakers; and importance to U.S. national interests; see Dwyer and Wiley 1980, which led to a four-tier listing of African languages. The categories were defined as follows:

<u>Priority</u>	<u>Description</u>
1) Highest	National or transnational
2) Second	Regional languages
3) Third	Important local languages (more than one million speakers)
4) Fourth	All other African languages

(See Appendix A for a listing of these languages.)

2.22 Identifying Resources

The next step was to inventory the resources available for the study of these languages, in the United States and around the world. With the help of a grant from the U.S. Department of Education, the African Studies Center at Michigan State University assembled a listing of human, institutional, and material sources relevant to the teaching and learning of the languages in the top three priority levels. This resulted in the publication of a report, "Human and Institutional Resources for the Study of High Priority African Languages," published through the ERIC documentation system. This will soon be followed by a companion volume, "Material Resources for the Study of High Priority African Languages."

2.23 Establishing Materials Evaluation Guidelines

One of the most difficult tasks in systematizing the teaching of African languages was to develop some degree of consensus on teaching approaches and the design of textbooks. In addition to being one of the most crucial tasks, this is also

one of the most sensitive. Different views toward the teaching of language abound with arguments and facts in support of each. This underscores the magnitude of the task undertaken in spring 1984 by the Guidelines Conference. Its planning and design are described in section 3 of this chapter, and the results and conclusions of the conference are described in Chapter 15. Despite the diversity of viewpoints, the conference did yield some important and specific recommendations, which served as the basis for the next step, the evaluation of existing materials.

2.24 Evaluating Materials

Even with general guidelines, the evaluation task is still difficult. Although space does not permit a full discussion, the following listing presents some areas of concern:

- 1) The evaluator's knowledge of the language;
- 2) The evaluator's experience in language teaching;
- 3) The evaluator's experience in materials development;
- 4) The evaluator's individual bias;
- 5) The choice of criteria for evaluation;
- 6) The difficulty of equating evaluation of the materials for one language to that of another.

Nonetheless, it is necessary to take accurate stock of the materials available, so that we can best use our limited resources in developing new ones. The African Studies Center at MSU, with a grant from the U.S. Department of Education will supervise a survey of learning materials available for each of the 82 high priority languages. The project will develop a common questionnaire to be used by evaluators, who will be those most closely fitting the following description:

- 1) Someone knowledgeable in the linguistics of the

- language;
- 2) Someone who has had experience in teaching the language;
- 3) Someone who has written learning materials for that language

2.25 Examining Teaching Methods and Skills

In addition to making recommendations for evaluating materials, the 1984 Materials Guidelines Conference suggested that teaching could be made more effective by holding methodology workshops for African language teachers and coordinators (especially on the natural method), as well as workshops on language evaluation (developing and applying the ACTFL guidelines to specific African languages).

3.0 Background

3.1 The Task

Designing the guidelines conference involved several dimensions. First, since it was generally accepted that there was very little agreement on how African languages should be taught, there could be very little agreement on how to evaluate materials. Second, there was the problem of identifying how the task should be approached. That is, by breaking the job of evaluating materials into smaller units, one may be able to proceed more effectively, but if the logic of such a breakdown appears faulty to participants (that is, the cart seems to have been put before the horse), this attempt at streamlining may produce the opposite effect. A third question concerned who should participate and how the conference itself should be structured.

It seemed to me that the diversity of teaching

methodology among African language instructors is due in large part to the fact that this group has not had the opportunity to sit down to hash things out. Thus, the very fact of a workshop would begin to resolve some differences. Furthermore, the process could be facilitated by focusing early in the conference on the issue of language teaching methodology.

The question of how to structure the conference on the development of materials guidelines actually involved determining how potential participants would view the task rather than examining the task itself. What was needed was an advisory/steering committee, and I had two at my disposal: one at Michigan State University consisting of David Wiley, Carol Scotton, Grover Hudson, John Eulenberg, and, later, Zinta Conrad; and one drawing representatives from midwestern universities involved in the teaching of African languages. This second committee consisted of Eyamba Bokamba, (University of Illinois), Judy Leidy (Indiana University), Patrick Bennett (University of Wisconsin), Abraham Demozi (Northwestern University), Ann Bierstecker (Northern Illinois University), and Grover Hudson (Michigan State University). It met on September 1, 1983, at Chicago's O'Hare Airport.

The result of this meeting was extremely encouraging, for as we began dealing with the task, two things became apparent. First, everyone there, despite varying views on language teaching methodology, was very enthusiastic about the conference, which at the very least would bring a representative selection of African language teachers together to discuss their

profession. Second, there was also the feeling that such a workshop would reveal many areas of agreement; while it probably would be impossible to achieve consensus in every area, everyone was personally committed to working toward that goal.

3.2 Focus

From the start, every effort was made to emphasize that the focus of the conference was to be on identifying guidelines for the preparation and evaluation of African language learning materials. This was done, stressed in all written and telephone communications with the participants.

3.3 Designing Conference Topics

As a result of the O'Hare meeting, we agreed to have a series of commissioned papers on a set of topics and suggested possible authors. These papers and other relevant reading materials would be circulated beforehand so that they could be discussed rather than presented during the conference. In addition, a call for papers would be issued and selections made on the basis of how well they fit the general plan of the topics chosen for the conference. Each of these presentations would be followed by remarks from the discussant and then from the audience at large.

The final conference schedule was as follows:

Commissioned Papers

1. Krashen
2. Swaffer
3. Schah
4. Leidz
5. Bokamba

Invited Papers

Speaker
Discussant

PART 1: THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

CHAPTER 1: LANGUAGE ACQUISITION THEORY AND MATERIALS
CONSTRUCTION

S. Krashen, University of Southern California

The purpose of this paper is to discuss how developments and progress in second language acquisition theory can influence materials. In recent years, major changes in theory, have invalidated many common assumptions about how language should be taught. While these changes necessitate construction of new materials, this task will not require esoteric and special knowledge or machinery. Moreover, the gap between materials and current knowledge can be closed fairly rapidly, at least in part, by proper use of what is currently available.

A. Second Language Acquisition Theory

I will attempt only a brief summary of current second language acquisition theory and will offer several major conclusions, which are best thought of as current hypotheses. I will not try to supply detailed support for these hypotheses here, as the evidence is extensive and has been presented elsewhere (for example, Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985).

B. Acquisition and Learning

The cornerstone of current theory is the distinction between acquisition and learning, the idea that we have two independent means of gaining ability in second languages. Acquisition is a subconscious process, identical to the one used in first language acquisition in all important ways. While acquisition is taking place, acquirers are not always aware of

it, and they are not usually aware of its results. Acquisition produces what Chomsky calls "tacit competence," or a "feel" for language. Learning is conscious knowledge, or "knowing about" language. When we talk about "grammar" or "rules," we are referring to learning, not acquisition. According to the theory, the practice of error correction affects learning, not acquisition. When our errors are corrected, we rethink and adjust our conscious rules.

Acquisition, it now appears, plays a far more central role in second language performance than does learning. Our ability to use second languages comes mostly from what we have acquired, not from what we have learned. Our conscious rules perform only one function: They act as an editor or Monitor. While we are speaking or writing, we can stop, scan the output of our acquired system, and make corrections, using the rules we have learned. This is, however, very difficult to do; to utilize the conscious grammar effectively, we need to be focused on form, or be thinking about correctness, and we need to know the grammar rules involved. Moreover, Monitor use decreases the amount of information we can transmit and takes time, factors that can disrupt performance. Research evidence strongly suggests that Monitor use is very limited, that all fluency and nearly all accuracy in second language performance, even among highly "analytic" adult performers, is a result of what we have acquired, not what we have learned.

B. The Input Hypothesis

If acquisition is indeed central, the crucial question

then becomes: How do we acquire? The best hypothesis now, the one that fits the data the most accurately, is that we acquire in just one way - by understanding messages, or by obtaining knowledge of the world, and our previous linguistic competence. This Input Hypothesis explains why pictures and other realia are so valuable to the beginning language teacher; they provide context, background information, that helps make input comprehensible.¹

The Input Hypothesis also claims that speaking per se does not cause language acquisition. Rather, the ability to speak "emerges" on its own, as a result of language acquisition, as a result of obtaining comprehensible input. Thus, speaking Spanish to yourself as you drive to work in the morning will not help you acquire more Spanish, whereas, listening to Spanish language radio might help a great deal, if it is comprehensible. Speaking can help indirectly: If you speak, someone might answer (conversation)! The value of conversation lies in what the other person says to you; thus, speech helps when it invites comprehensible input.

Another very important part of the Input Hypothesis is the claim that comprehensible input, when delivered in sufficient quantity, automatically contains all the appropriate structures for the acquirer. We need not deliberately program grammar; rather, if we supply enough comprehensible input, all the structures, those described by linguists and those not yet described, will be provided in just the right quantity and be automatically reviewed. I have argued (see references cited

earlier) that this approach is far more efficient than deliberate grammatical sequencing for the development of grammatical accuracy.

B. The Affective Filter

A final concept to be covered here is the Affective Filter Hypothesis; it claims that comprehensible input, while necessary, is not sufficient for second language acquisition. Input may be understood by the acquirer, but this does not mean it will reach the "language acquisition device" (LAD). Dulay and Burt (1977) posited that an Affective Filter exists, a barrier that can prevent input from reaching the LAD. I have hypothesized, on the basis of research on affective variable, that a high filter, one that prevents input from reaching the LAD, is caused by low motivation, high student anxiety, and low student self-esteem (see Krashen 1981, Chapter 2). Views that appear to me to be parallel (and elucidating) are those of Frank Smith and Earl Stevick. Smith (1983a, 1983b) suggests that successful language acquisition requires that at least two conditions be met: The acquirer must assume he or she will be successful, and must consider him- or herself to be a potential member of the "club" of users of that language. Stevick (1976) notes that many students are "on the defensive" in language class; they consider it to be a place where their weaknesses will be revealed, not a place where they will grow in competence. In terms of the theory, this causes a high Affective Filter.

To sum up, we acquire when we obtain comprehensible input

in a low anxiety situation, when we are presented with interesting messages, and when we understand these messages. It is interesting to note that comprehensible input has been the last resort of the language teaching profession: We have tried nearly every other possibility - grammar teaching, dialogue memorization, pattern drills, and expensive and awkward teaching machines. None of these approaches attempts to provide the essential ingredient, comprehensible input.

A. Language Teaching

B. The Need for Comprehensible Input

The theory does not predict that language classes are a waste of time. On the contrary, they can be very useful, more so, in fact, than simply visiting the country where the language is spoken. If a beginner "goes to the country," he or she will encounter only incomprehensible input, or noise, whereas a well-taught language class can give a concentrated dose of comprehensible input right from the first day. The goal of the language class is to put students in a position to understand the language of the "outside" world, to make them "intermediates". Thus, while the classroom is the best place for the beginner, intermediates are better off in the country, where they can be provided with comprehensible input all day long.

Research on teaching methodology supports this view. Language classes have been shown to be effective for beginners but much less so for intermediate students who have access to input on the outside (Krashen 1982). In addition, methods

emphasizing comprehensible input and a low affective filter have consistently been shown to be far superior to old-fashioned grammar-drill approaches (there is little difference between grammar and drill/pattern practice methods, because each fails to provide much comprehensible input). These results are nothing new. Asher, for example, developed a method called Total Physical Response, in which the teacher gives students commands in the second language. It is effective because the commands are comprehensible - the teacher models the action required as the command is given. Asher's first report on TPR was published in 1965, and research confirming its efficacy has appeared regularly since in the most prestigious journals. (For a review, see Asher 1982.) In every case, TPR students do much better than comparison students. (For recent evidence of the superiority of comprehensive input methods, see Swaffer and Woodruff 1978; Wolfe and Jones 1982; and my review in Krashen 1982.)

B. The Natural Approach

Other effective comprehensible input based methods that have empirical support include Terrell's Natural Approach (see Krashen and Terrell 1983) and Lozanov's Suggestopedia Method. The Natural Approach was designed to provide comprehensible input - class time is devoted to discussion of topics of interest, games, tasks, and so forth. Students may respond in either the first or second language, and their errors are not corrected; it is the comprehensible input from the teacher that causes acquisition, not the students' production. Grammar

study, for the conscious Monitor and for "language appreciation" (linguistics) is done at home. Natural Approach classes are organized; the teacher does not "just talk," but the organization is around topics of interest, not grammar. The syllabus, the list of topics, will vary according to student interest and can even be negotiated; according to the theory, input need only be comprehensible and interesting, and it need not focus on individual points of grammar. Terrell's syllabus, for his introductory college Spanish course, is presented in Appendix A as an example (from Krashen and Terrell 1983).

Very little student talk in the second language is expected during early stages (termed the prespeech stage). Activities are done in which students only need answer "yes" or "no" or use someone's name in order to participate. Gradually, more response is called for, but in general students are not forced to speak.

Voge (1981) compared Natural Approach to "direct method" students at the first semester college level in German as a foreign language. The direct method utilizes the target language in the classroom but focuses on grammatical accuracy and utilizes heavy error correction. As can be seen in Appendix B, Natural Approach students easily outperformed direct method students on all measures involving communication, and they equalled them on a standard grammar test, even though much less time had been devoted to grammar. In addition, Natural Approach students reported they were less worried about being called on and were more optimistic about their future chances of success

in acquiring German.

B. From the Classroom to the Real World

Elementary language classes have been effectively supplemented in recent years in academic situations by the "sheltered" subject matter class (Krashen 1982). Usually, the language class is not enough to assure success in the academic mainstream; the Natural Approach, for example, can put students in a position to converse with a cooperative native speaker about everyday topics after a year's study, but this experience will not be enough to prepare them for the University of Mexico! To help the transition from the language class to the outside world, we have been developing subject matter courses taught in a comprehensible way to second language students. Studies of Canadian "immersion" programs indicated that when children study in a second language they gain in both subject matter knowledge and second language acquisition (for a recent review of research, see Swain and Lapkin 1982), and our work on adults confirms that this is true of the older student as well (Edwards and others 1984). Sheltered courses are not modules introduced into regular language classes but are subject matter courses, with the test on the subject matter, not the language. Native speakers of the second language are excluded to ensure that input is made comprehensible to the non-native speaker. Sheltered courses, in my view, are an excellent way of helping the student acquire language for special purposes, such as

a c a d e m i c l a n g u a g e .

A. Materials Development

The change in focus from grammar instruction to comprehensible input means a change in materials as well. I will concentrate here on materials for the beginning level.

B. The Textbook

The first major issue is whether the standard text, one to be given to each student, is necessary. This is, at the moment, a wide open question in my mind. Such a text would have to serve as an aid to the teacher in providing comprehensible input in the classroom. It might include visuals, to aid in comprehension, and may include some "core vocabulary," intended as a guide to students and teachers. It would follow the sequence of topics covered in class. The emergence of acquisition-based methodology has given rise to a new genre in materials, the teacher resource book of activities. Such books simply give instructors ideas for presenting activities that provide comprehensible input on topics of interest and relevance to beginning students. An example is shown in Appendix C from Christison and Bassano's Look Who's Talking (1981). Also, Conversation Starters, by Judy Olsen, has a number of very clever ideas for beginning students, and other suggestions can be found in Krashen and Terrell (1983, Chapters 5 and 6). For activities suitable for small children, see Alvarez-Martini and others (1984).

These volumes have tremendous value and are currently quite popular among ESL (English as a Second Language) teachers. They are flexible; instructors need not use all

activities but can pick and choose those appropriate for their class and its syllabus. Also, since the only requirement is that the activity be interesting and comprehensible, the order of presentation is not fixed; activities need not and should not provide practice on the "structure of the day." The activities in these volumes are easy to learn to do, and it is easy for teachers to expand on them. A special value is that the exercises are in English (since they were designed for ESL) and thus can be adapted for use in any target language.²

B. The Reader

Reading is comprehensible input. There is good evidence that pleasure reading has a powerful effect on language acquisition. (For a recent study, see Elley and Mangubhai 1983 , who showed that elementary school EFL English as a Foreign Language students who only engaged in pleasure reading convincingly outperformed students in standard audio-lingual classes, both in reading comprehension and other English language skills.) The problem is providing texts that are both interesting and comprehensible to beginning students. Such texts need not be "grammatically sequenced"; they need only be interesting and comprehensible. If these requirements are met, the necessary rules the student is ready to acquire will automatically be provided. (For more discussion of this point, see Krashen 1982). It would be highly desirable if beginning students could read, for pleasure, each night in their second language. Since context is so facilitative of comprehension, it would be desirable if some texts for beginning students could

parallel class discussions. It would also be highly desirable that some reading be selected by the students themselves.

Very little reading is currently done in elementary language classes. In my view, what is done is nearly always much too difficult; texts attempt to provide practice in new vocabulary and grammar, thus ensuring low comprehensibility! Students need a great deal of easy and interesting reading that provides its own reward. Moreover, current reading theory strongly indicates that it is counterproductive to insist on detailed "comprehension questions" at the end of reading passages. This practice only ensures that students will focus on small points and will prevent reading for overall meaning and thus pleasure. As Frank Smith notes, attempting to cram items into long-term memory is a substantial effort and has the effect of interfering with comprehension, whereas simply attempting to understand, to make sense of a text, without deliberately trying to remember details is an effective way to introduce knowledge into long-term memory (see Smith 1978, 1982) and directly promotes language acquisition.

Pedagogical materials are also made difficult because of their brevity. Good readers depend on subsequent text to check their comprehension, to confirm their hypotheses about meaning (Smith 1982). Short excerpts make this difficult; coherent longer selections are easier to read, not harder.

The lack of interesting and comprehensible readers for beginning students constitutes a major gap in materials for the elementary level. In addition, there has been little effort to

consider what "authentic" materials might be appropriate for the advanced beginner.

B. Tapes

Tapes and other aural media can be an excellent supplementary source of comprehensible input. Once again, topics need only be comprehensible and interesting, and could parallel classroom discussion in a Natural Approach class. Tapes could be especially valuable in situations in which there is little comprehensible input available, as in the teaching of so-called exotic languages, and in teaching English as a foreign language in countries where little English is heard. Indeed, tapes may be the major source of native-like comprehensible input in these situations, especially if only non-native teachers are available.

The absolute beginner may need special tapes, constructed specifically for the second language student, while advanced students may be able to understand some authentic recordings. As mentioned earlier in reference to reading, longer selections will be easier to comprehend, other factors equal, than brief selections, since they will allow greater use of background information.

It may also be possible to develop written materials to supplement tapes, books with background text and/or visuals that help make the aural input comprehensible (for an example, see Winitz 1981).

Comprehensible books and tapes are the components of the language lab of the future, in my view. The lab should be a

place where students can go to get a healthy dose of comprehensible input, on a topic of their choosing. They should be able to select from a fair variety of topics, and hear and read input at their own level of competence. Such a lab will be far easier to construct and run than the traditional one seen now. Labs based on "output theory" (try it and we will tell you whether you are correct) are difficult to assemble, hard to manage, expensive, and awkward. They require sophisticated machinery and constant supervision (a monitor to detect and correct student output errors). The comprehensible input language lab requires a fraction of the effort and cost, and all the available research indicates that it will be far more effective.

B. The Grammar Book

There are several good reasons to include the study of grammar in a Natural Approach type course and to include a grammar text. First, effective Monitor users can employ conscious rules to raise the accuracy of their output a few percentage points. This is certainly an asset when it does not interfere with communication. For most adults, this means that applying grammar rules should be limited to writing and prepared speech, and the rules that will help in this way can be deliberately taught. I have argued (Krashen 1982) that there are strict limits to conscious learning. Rules that can be taught are typically those acquired late and that are "learnable." What is learnable will vary a great deal from person to person, however, and professional linguists and

language teachers need to remember that what is transparent to them may be opaque to most people. There is considerable child-adult variation in ability to learn grammar consciously, and even a great deal among adults (Krashen 1981, Chapter 1). An abundance of grammar books is already available for most target languages. I have suggested that the grammar component be fairly substantial for college students, somewhat more modest for high school students, less still for junior high school, nonexistent for elementary school, and optional for adult education.

A second reason to include grammar is to teach about language; the study of language, or linguistics, is often a parallel goal along with language proficiency in university-level courses.

A. Some Conclusions

Appendix D summarizes my suggestions on materials. If these are accepted, we have much work to do. Our task can be reduced considerably, however, if we make intelligent selections from existing materials. Teacher resource books are available and easy to use. Current grammar books will be useful for teaching to the conscious Monitor, although we must bear in mind the limits of learning. Perhaps our greatest effort now should be devoted to providing alternate sources of comprehensible input-- readers and tapes--to fill a gap that exists in all languages taught, including English. As mentioned above, it is not clear just how much material needs to be constructed anew, and how much authentic native-speaker material can be utilized.

Selection and construction of appropriate reading and listening materials need only meet these requirements: they must be comprehensible and interesting, and there must be plenty of them. "Field testing" is conceptually simple: Will students read them and listen to them with interest? If students find the materials interesting, it means the materials are comprehensible; if they are comprehensible, language acquisition will take place.

Notes

1. Steven Sternfeld (personal communication) has pointed out to me that conscious rule knowledge may help make input comprehensible, even if the conscious rule that helps do this is not itself the object of acquisition. It may contribute to the context and aid in the acquisition of some other rule. Consider, for example, beginning French students reading in French. They have learned, but not acquired, the forms for the future tense (*je donnerai*, and so forth). When they see these forms, they may understand the passage better - they will know the future is being used. This knowledge may give them a better idea of the meaning of the passage in general and may help them acquire some other rule in the passage, even though they may not be ready to acquire the future tense (that is they may not have reached the future tense in the "natural order"; Krashen 1982).

It remains an open question as to just how much a contribution consciously learned rules make to comprehension. What is clear is that not all adult acquirers have the ability or interest to use grammar extensively in this way. In fact, the conscious grammatical knowledge even of "good language learners" is quite limited (see for example, Cohen and Robbins 1976; Krashen 1981), and extensive acquisition is quite possible without it (see, for example, the case of "J.P." in Krashen 1985).

2. Many activities described in teacher resource books involve a fair amount of "interlanguage talk," students interacting with one another. One can object to this practice, arguing that if students only hear the speech of other acquirers, they can acquire one another's errors and "fossilize." This is a theoretical possibility, as I have argued (Krashen 1985). Research has shown that acquirers pass through predictable intermediate stages en route to full

competence, and these stages are, it seems, "natural" languages, obeying all the constraints of "full" languages. Intermediate forms typically fall away, as they are usually not confirmed by further input (Krashen 1983), but if acquirers hear only intermediate forms, such forms can be permanently acquired. We can avoid this problem by making sure students hear the real thing, native quality comprehensible input, from the teacher and from the lab (for example, tapes; see text). Another possibility is to use native speaker "aides" in the classroom or lab, as conversation group leaders and as participants in classroom activities.

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Appendix A

A Natural Approach Syllabus (from Krashen and Terrell 1983)

PRELIMINARY UNIT: LEARNING TO UNDERSTAND

TOPICS

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------|
| 1. Names | 5. Clothing |
| 2. Description of students | 6. Colors |
| 3. Family | 7. Objects in |
| 4. Numbers | the classroom |

SITUATIONS

1. Greetings
2. Classroom commands

I. STUDENTS IN THE CLASSROOM

TOPICS

1. Personal identification (name, address, telephone number, age, sex, nationality, date of birth, marital status).
2. Description of school environment (identification, description and location of people and objects in the classroom, description and location of of buildings).
3. Classes
4. Telling time

II. RECREATION AND LEISURE ACTIVITIES

TOPICS

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Favorite activities | 6. Holiday activities |
| 2. Sports and games | 7. Parties |
| 3. Climate and seasons | 8. Abilities |
| 4. Weather | 9. Cultural and |
| 5. Seasonal activities | artistic interests |

SITUATIONS

1. Playing games, sports

III. FAMILY, FRIENDS AND DAILY ACTIVITIES

TOPICS

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Family and relatives | 5. Holiday and |
| 2. Physical states | vacation activities |
| 3. Emotional states | 6. Pets |
| 4. Daily activities | |

SITUATIONS

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Introductions,
meeting people | 2. Visiting relatives |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|

IV. PLANS, OBLIGATIONS AND CAREERS

TOPICS

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Immediate future plans | 5. Careers and |
| 2. General future activities | professions |
| 3. Obligations | 6. Place of work |
| 4. Hopes and desires | 7. Work activities |
| | 8. Salary and money |

SITUATIONS

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Job interview | 2. Talking on the job |
|------------------|-----------------------|

APPENDIX A - Continued

V. RESIDENCE

TOPICS

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Place of residence | 4. Activities at home |
| 2. Rooms of a house | 5. Household items |
| 3. Furniture and household items | 6. Amenities |

SITUATIONS

1. Looking for a place to live
2. Moving

VI. NARRATING PAST EXPERIENCES

TOPICS

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Immediate past events | 4. Holidays and parties |
| 2. Yesterday's activities | 5. Trips and vacations |
| 3. Weekend events | 6. Experiences |

SITUATIONS

1. Friends recounting experiences

VII. HEALTH, ILLNESSES AND EMERGENCIES

TOPICS

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Parts of the body | 4. Health maintenance |
| 2. Physical states | 5. Health professions |
| 3. Mental states and moods | 6. Medicines and diseases |

SITUATIONS

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Visits to doctor | 4. Buying medicines |
| 2. Hospitals | 5. Emergencies (accidents) |
| 3. Health interviews | |

VIII. EATING

TOPICS

1. Foods
2. Beverages

SITUATIONS

1. Ordering a meal in a restaurant
2. Shopping in a supermarket
3. Preparing food from recipes

IX. TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION

TOPICS

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Geography | 4. Experiences on tris |
| 2. Modes of transportation | 5. Languages |
| 3. Vacations | 6. New Experiences |

SITUATIONS

- | | |
|---------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Buying gasoline | 4. Obtaining lodging |
| 2. Exchanging money | 5. Buying tickets |
| 3. Clearing customs | 6. Making reservations |

APPENDIX A -Continued

X. SHOPPING AND BUYING

TOPICS

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------|
| 1. Money and prices | 3. Gifts |
| 2. Fashions | 4. Products |

SITUATIONS

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------|
| 1. Selling and buying | 3. Bargaining |
| 2. Shopping | |

XI. YOUTH

TOPICS

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Childhood experiences | 3. Teen years experiences |
| 2. Primary school experiences | 4. Adult expectations and activities |

SITUATIONS

1. Reminiscing with friends
2. Sharing photo albums
3. Looking at school yearbooks

XII. GIVING DIRECTIONS AND INSTRUCTIONS

SITUATIONS

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Giving orders at home | 5. Following game instructions |
| 2. Giving instructions at school | 6. Giving an invitation |
| 3. Following maps | 7. Making an appointment |
| 4. Finding locations | |

XIII VALUES

TOPICS

- | | |
|---------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Family | 5. Sex roles and stereotypes |
| 2. Friendship | 6. Goals |
| 3. Love | 7. Religious beliefs |
| 4. Marriage | |

XIV. ISSUES AND CURRENT EVENTS

TOPICS

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Environmental problems | 7. Crime |
| 2. Economic issues | 8. Sports |
| 3. Education | 9. Social events |
| 4. Employment and careers | 10. Cultural events |
| 5. Ethical issues | 11. Minority groups |
| 6. Politics | 12. Science and health |

SITUATIONS

1. Discussing last night's news broadcast
2. Discussing a recent movie

Appendix B

Comparison of Natural Approach and Direct Method (from Voge 1981)

I. SPEAKING TEST (Describe a picture, a cartoon):

	<u>Number of Vocabulary items</u> ^(a)	<u>Description of frames</u>
Natural Approach		
Class 1	13.6	5.3
Class 2	11.1	5.6
Direct Method		
Class 1	5.1	2.3
Class 2	3.1	2.5

II. WRITING TEST:

	<u>Number of T-units</u>	<u>Number of Error-free T-units</u>
Natural Approach		
Class 1	9.0	2.3
Class 2	7.6	2.4
Direct Method		
Class 1	2.4	1.1
Class 2	6.8	1.6

III. GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY (discrete-point grammar test):

Natural Approach:	
Class 1	14.8
Class 2	16.5
Direct Method:	
Class 1	15.0
Class 2	16.2

^a Mean scores in all cases.

Appendix C

STRATEGY TYPE: Small Group
PERSONAL NON-PERSONAL
TIME NEEDED: 20 minutes
MATERIALS: Handout material

THE DESERT ISLAND

PROCEDURE:

For this activity your students will have to understand the ideas pretend or make believe. You may wish to use a simple activity to demonstrate these words before beginning this exercise. Hand out the list of items which follows. Read the following paragraph to your class.

Instructions:

Pretend you are on a sinking ship. There are rubber boats available for your rescue. The boats can hold only a limited amount of supplies and people. You can see a small desert island in the distance. If your boat makes it there safely, you will need things to help you survive until you're rescued.

Look at the list of items you have been given. You can take only three items from each group. Divide into groups of three to five. Your group must decide together which things to take and which things to leave behind. You cannot decide individually.

Remember! Everyone in your group must agree.

Teacher notes:

Make certain all students understand before beginning the activity. Depending on the level of your group you may have to read the story and instructions several times. Discuss the vocabulary items on the handout material if necessary.

GROUP 1

Large flares
Matches
Flashlights
Oil lamps
Oil
Batteries
Can opener

GROUP 2

Pillows
Sleeping bags
Tent
Blankets
Sheets
Coats and jackets
Extra clothes

GROUP 3

Fresh water
7-up
Coffee
Canned juices
Beer
Tea
Whiskey

APPENDIX C (continued)

THE DESERT ISLAND

GROUP 4

Salt
Flour
Sugar
Yeast
Dry milk
Water purification
tablets

GROUP 5

Bows and arrows
Set of knives
Gun
Bullets
Fishing pole
Small chairs
Dishes
First-aid kit
Ropes

GROUP 6

Frozen meat
Dried fruits
Dried vegetables
Fresh fruits
Fresh vegetables
Canned beans
Dry soup

From: M. Christison and S. Bassano, Look Who's Talking
Hayward, Ca.: Alemany Press, 1981).

Appendix D

Materials for Language Teaching

For Acquisition (Comprehensible Input):

1. Classroom activities: teacher resource text
2. Language lab, homework: reading, tapes

For Learning:

Grammar book

CHAPTER 2: THE STRUCTURE OF VERBAL MEANING

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Any communicative theory of language teaching will be predicated on a notion of exchange of ideas, on transferral of meaning from one mind to the mind of another person. When the focus of a language classroom moves from grammar instruction to comprehensible input, the practical question which arises is: What is verbal meaning? We propose to explore this question pragmatically, as the specification of a series of processes, bracketing both psychological and ontological ramifications for purposes of this discussion.¹

From the standpoint of constructing a process model for verbal meaning which will aid us in identifying the constituents of comprehensible input, the problems of language and meaning are quintessentially posed in the writings of Saussure, Wittgenstein, Austin, and Searle. In Saussure's distinction between signifier (the phonological and orthographic representation of a word in any given language) and signified (the definition and implications of that word within a culture-bound language system), the foundation was established for examining meaning at the level of sign or word systems whose existence is contingent on the tacit agreement of a community of speakers.¹

A. Sign Systems as the Game Rules of Usage

Wittgenstein specified the operation of these

contingencies as game rules or a contextual system that restricts the available participant options according to explicit rules (in the case of language, surface structure grammaticality) and implicit rules (the allowable, that is, relevant information patterns at the propositional level).³ He further identified a subset of Saussure's signified: ostensive and verbal definitions.⁴ We can accept without extensive explanation Wittgenstein's assertion that words which can only be defined verbally, that is, in terms of other words, obtain their meaning from the particular systematics of the language itself. More startling is his analysis of the ostensive concept, words with concrete correlatives in either an activity or an object. We commonly assume that "run" or "hat" corresponds to an image in our heads which correlates with empirical, sensory experience (we can touch, hear, see, feel, or taste it). Yet because, as any language teacher knows, one can point to a hat and discover that students have understood "round," "felt," "headgear," "gray" (to mention just a few of the possibilities), Wittgenstein views the correspondence assumption as a mistake: "We are looking for the use of a sign, but we look for it as though it were an object co-existing with the sign. (One of the reasons for this mistake is again that we are looking for a 'thing corresponding to a substantive.')

The sign (the sentence) gets its significance from the system of signs, from the language to which it belongs. Roughly: Understanding a sentence means understanding a language."⁵

The implication of this assertion provides the beginning

of an answer to our question: All linguistic meaning exists with respect to a system of signs made up of words and sentences. The use of words and sentences (not their formal features such as spelling or morphology) in a language system prescribes their meaning. It was largely the feat of Austin and Searle to specify with precision what the term use implies.

A. Intent as the Precondition of Sign Systems

If meaning resides in word use within language systems or patterns, the identity of structures of verbal meaning will be commensurate with the constituents and operations of propositional systems, rather than the Surface systems of morphology and syntax.⁶ Austin and Searle have suggested that the key to discovering the propositional use to which words are put in a sentence is to see what they do, that is, to sort out the range of options and constraints available in speech acts.⁷ Speech Act theory, then, proposes that both the ostensive and the verbal signified in a given language system are predicated on a propositional intent that structures the semantics and syntax of a proposition. As they describe it, the speaker intent is necessarily correlated with a particular speech environment (what the speaker overtly claims to intend to achieve and can, in terms of practical exigencies, actually achieve is necessarily restricted by the context in which those aims are articulated). This environment will automatically limit both ostensive and verbal definitions of words in use. Moreover, the system of words in use which emerges will be innately swayed in its construct by the intent that underlies

its constituency.

B. Comprehension as the Equivalent of Verbal Meaning

Important for language teaching and any definition of comprehension and comprehensible input, is the fact that meaning from the standpoint of speech acts is, again, not a one-way street.⁸ Meaning exists only subsequent to transmission, as a function of communication. Sender and receiver must both register not only the information, but also the intended implications of the information transmitted. From both the speaker and the listener's point of view, "understanding a sentence is knowing its meaning. The meaning of a sentence is determined by rules, and those rules specify both conditions of utterance of the sentence and also what the utterance counts as."⁹ "What the utterance counts as" is the vital contingency of verbal message--its respective credibility, Worth, and ultimate significance, within the environmental restrictions of the language use.

B. How Intent Structures Verbal Meaning

When Searle claims that meaning resides in the act of illocution or expression of intent, he specifically excludes from the discussion of sentence meaning both locutionary (sentences that describe) and perlocutionary (sentences that cause something to happen) statements.¹⁰ This is not to say, of course, that when things are described ("the hat is gray and made of felt") or events occur as a result of an assertion (as when a person says "sixty dollars" at an auction and turns out to be the highest bidder, the perlocutionary result of that assertion is that one has purchased the item bid upon) that no

meaning attaches to these kinds of speech acts. The reverse is true. The meaning that does attach to them resides in the illocutionary frame in which they were uttered. It is one thing to be (1) describing a hat to teach the vocabulary of personal attire to a foreign language class, another to be (2) a hat salesman, and yet another to be (3) a stand-up comedian developing a routine about headgear and human idiosyncrasy. Each respective articulation will have a different focus or aim which the speaker desires the listener to register as the fundamental organizing principle that connects the information about hats. In variant (1), the teacher will probably be focusing on meaning as phonological or orthographic system, and hence as repetition. Minor variation (introducing the concept of wide and narrow brims) will be understood by students in terms of the intent to teach vocabulary. In (2), the salesperson's conceivably similar statements about style (the wide and narrow brims reframed as attributes of fashion), personal needs, and value will be understood by the customer as an intent to sell. In (3), the unanticipated juxtaposition of associations that the comic makes for an audience will be perceived as the intent to be funny. In these instances things have been described, and something may actually happen as a result (vocabulary learned a locutionary act , raucous laughter an illocutionary act , hats purchased a perlocutionary act), but what was understood by the listener was understood in terms of what the speaker meant (intended) by saying any of this in the first place.

3. The Relationship of Fuzzy Intentions to Miscommunication

Since propositional content must be registered commensurately by both speaker and hearer, communication is enabled by tacit agreement about the conditions or social circumstances (Searle calls them constitutive rules¹¹) that define illocutionary acts and their permutational options. Austin and Searle, of course, examine the question of whether an intent is appropriately realized from the standpoint of the communicatively competent native speaker.¹² A person can promise to bring his/her felt hat but have no intention of doing so (Austin calls this an Abuse), or go home and discover she/he does not own such a hat, thereby voiding the promise (a Misfire or Non-play). In such permutations of intent, what the resultant statement counts as depends on such factors as what the speaker and the listener believe is credible: what the speaker is actually able to do, the speaker's sincerity or good faith and what circumstances allow. My acquaintances, for example, would be justifiably dubious about my promise to produce a hat for class the next day and would probably question my verbal meaning with the observation: "I didn't think you owned one". The extant environment was not accounted for in the stated intent. Similarly, the intent to entertain is inappropriate in most sales situations; consequently, comic observations may be misconstrued with resultant miscommunication to receiver/customers, who ask themselves "is this irony? Am I being made fun of?" or stalk off in irritation, muttering "this guy thinks he's a comedian." Such a miscommunication is

particularly common for foreign language learners since students do not have the command of situationally appropriate intents that native speakers possess. They may not realize that in a particular culture asking personal questions constitutes an insult, or they may not know that women do not own hats in particular cultures. The consequences of this situation are so straightforward that it seems reasonable to postulate the following: Comprehension of intent is an essential feature of comprehensible input for language students. In other words, comprehensibility of a message for the language listener/learner stands in direct correlation with listener/learner comprehension of message intent.

B. Clarifying Intent with Clear Contexts

Since comprehension is a two-way process (meanings must be registered by receivers before sender meaning is conveyed), meanings easiest to understand are those whose message intents are clearly framed to be comprehended by a specified audience in a specified situation. Like ostensive definitions of individual words, propositional structures (more complex sets of verbal definitions) can occur in a context so direct that the correspondence with tangible activities or interaction with objects and other people (the perlocutions that result from a illocutionary proposition) may actually be enacted or confirmed through visualization as a real world activity. This can be formulated as an equation: The greater the specification of illocutionary context, the greater is the likelihood of conceptual confirmation (registration of verbal meaning) of that

illocution in a real or conceptualized perlocutionary act. To put it another way, any time we teach language as speech acts which can result in real world consequences, comprehension of intent can be ostensibly confirmed or disconfirmed and, hence, comprehension of verbal message as meaning most readily apprehended.

A. Verbal Meaning as Acquisition Structure

Most language teachers have experienced the implications of this assertion in classroom practice. For example, in applications of Total Physical Response (TPR), which ask students to undergo an initial comprehension phase in which they learn language by hearing and executing (or watching the execution of) commands, students in the first or second week of class can execute syntactically complex commands (such as "point to something blue, but which is not something somebody is wearing"). This is because the propositional structures (point, blue object/-personal apparel feature) in the context of TPR are univalent, and their meanings are restricted by the ostensive environment. Similarly, task-oriented classroom activities enable the instructor to determine both the conditions of sentence utterance (as in conversation gambits whose rules trigger a verbal interruption at a given signal) and what such sentences count as. For example, if student interruptions result from game rules, they express the teacher-specified intent to play, not the socially associated intent to be rude.

The newly emerging foreign language teacher resource

books of activities are ideal for facilitating comprehensible input precisely because they create the constitutive leeway as well as the regulative specifications of clear context ("Twenty Questions" about a topic and commensurate word field has been specified by the teacher) and intent (asking questions). Situational constraints in games and student tasks such as oragami construction, drawing, and the like, place inherent language constraints on speakers. Ungrammatical questions will not interfere with communication as long as the global illocution is discernible. The illocution "type you letter?" or even the most minimal words or phrases ("Letter? Typing?") convey ostensive verbal meaning (the illocutionary image of a person in an office typing) to the interviewee and fellow students, because they know the aim of the speaker is to ascertain the activities engaged in. Moreover, because these activities are ostensive, grammaticality can be integrated as a communicative rather than a purely formal function. Understanding usage is contingent on verbal agreement among a community of speakers, not "correctness." The interviewee's or teacher's response, "I type lots of letters," can be comprehended as correcting a visual activity image as well as a morphological feature.

Years ago, I wrote an article suggesting that overt correction in the classroom is counterproductive. The assertions in that article have come back to haunt me, because the distinction between overt and covert correction was, apparently, insufficiently explained, and my position has been interpreted as "anti-correction." It is, in my experience, one

thing to say, "Felicia, the plural form of 'book' is 'books'" and quite another to respond subsequent to the statement "I have two book," with "Thanks. Two books are just what I needed." Students are aware of covert correction. Once a class of mine was interviewed by graduate student trainees who asked whether they would not prefer to have their grammar mistakes corrected in class. Somewhat to my surprise, the class responded: "What do you mean? We're corrected all the time," adding, "well, not by name, of course, but the teacher always says it right if we say it wrong." Along with the clear affective advantages (no one is being humiliated), part of the importance of covert correction is, as suggested here, that the formal monitoring processes are not given precedence over communicative objectives.

Despite a certain tendency in the profession toward gnashing of teeth concerning the "artificiality of the classroom setting," it is, practically speaking, entirely possible to create a communicatively authentic environment in which language messages are predicated on real (that is, constitutive of environment and language subsystems) rather than nonexistent or artificial intents. That is to say, when speakers and listeners can register requests, questions, assertions, advice, warnings, thanks, greetings, or congratulations as directed toward one another with the objective of eliciting an appropriate physical or verbal response, comprehensible input will result. The reason that most textbooks, if they are used to structure class time (rather than as study guides to confirm the relationship

between acquired language and eventual monitoring) are generally low sources of comprehensible input is because they teach language in the abstract, as a culturally sanitized langue. Language is presented as a grammar and vocabulary sequence, not in terms of communicating intent, thereby stripping it of its illocutionary and perlocutionary implications.¹³

Unless the instructor adapts the linguistic information of such texts by introducing appropriate classroom tasks to allow for communicative practice of structures and vocabulary, students are not provided a context with which they can identify. Most textbook language is not, in any communicative sense, directed toward the learner, since textbooks ask students to learn vocabulary and structures, not to do things with them. Because they are monitor or rule oriented, even those opportunities which exist for introducing illocution, such as student assignment instructions, are rejected by most language texts and appear in English rather than the target language.

The readings in standard beginning language texts exemplify the problems of a monitor rather than an acquisition orientation. Because they are designed to exemplify specific language levels (that is, "grammatically sequenced") rather than convey subject matter or entertain, they lack both comprehensibility and the characteristic feature of authenticity: an intent to communicate. Consequently, the instructor who wants students to engage in either pleasure reading or reading for information must augment the textbook with authentic reading selections. As Krashen emphasizes, the

texts selected must be both interesting and comprehensible, thereby enabling the aim of fairly extensive pleasure reading to be a practical feature of the elementary language class.

A. Pedagogical Advantages of Authentic Texts

Before extensive reading of authentic texts can be introduced into the elementary language classroom, teachers and students will have to accept the theory and substantiating research suggesting that language acquisition is more effectively facilitated by reading longer rather than short (one or two paragraph), edited texts. The evidence is cogent that a focus on global comprehension of information patterns results in higher language as well as content retention than when students are asked to concentrate attention on details in a short passage.¹⁴ Similarly, native language studies have demonstrated that passage brevity (one or two paragraphs) generally means the reading comprehension task is harder, not easier, since textual redundancies and elaborations are necessarily fewer. As yet, few language programs have adopted extensive reading at the elementary level precisely because little information is available to help teachers determine what kinds of authentic materials will serve the needs of adult language learners. The suggestions that follow attempt to specify which propositional structures of authentic texts constitute comprehensibility criteria. In other words, what kinds of authentic texts will elementary language students be able to read for general meaning and without undo frustration about a failure to understand details of textual message?

A. Ostensive Information, Intents, and Comprehensibility

Authentic texts, like speech acts, intend something. In the communicative classroom tasks described above, success was predicated on agreement about conditions for activities and the intent of student verbalizations. These same features apply to the selection of readings for such a class. If textual intents are univalent and textual information within the realm of ostensive experience, the global meaning of the selection will be comprehensible, even by persons with extremely restricted knowledge of the target language's structures and vocabulary, that is, after only three or four weeks of classroom exposure to the language. If students are not expected to know (are not asked or tested about) every small detail, as in an overlearning situation, there will be no need to be too concerned about unfamiliar words. Editing will not be necessary. Indeed, as has been stated earlier, it is actually undesirable. Editing not only eliminates redundancies necessary for confirming hypotheses about global meaning but also deprives students of the very important authentic experience of having to figure out the fundamental message in extended discourse when the transmission is only partial, that is not apprehended in its entirety.

Given a familiar orthographic system in an Indo-European language, beginning language students will be able to establish a reading hypothesis, the essential first step in reading for meaning. Regardless of the complexity of the texts, a valid reading hypothesis is established by confirming the context or

conditions of the utterances (the subject)matter) and what the utterance counts as (the intent) in view of those conditions. In the case of the text types suggested, both the teacher's and the students' job has been simplified because the intent is identifiable from the outset as a genre feature, that is, ads sell, brochures inform, and so forth. In previewing these texts, the teacher need only establish the particular genre with a follow-up question about expectations. In the case of a series of advertisements, the introduction to the reading assignment and preparation for follow-up discussion the next day might be as follows for a Cannon copier machine ad.

Instructor: "This ad has two kinds of copier machines--Cannon and Xerox. What do you expect the ad writers want you to think? (Answers: "Cannon's going to look good," "Cannon's better," and so forth)

Instructor: "As you read, why don't you circle or note the places where different features of copier machines are being compared." Such a suggestion structures the student reading by focusing attention on comprehension of an information pattern--enlargement, copy clarity, and the like. The task will not involve translating or producing language which is unavailable in the text itself. Moreover, the focus of the task is still on the global proposition features of comparison. Students will not need to understand details to start chunking the pattern of information which expresses the global proposition of the ad (compare A and B to see why A is better).

Subsequent class discussion will confirm and expand on

the detail of the global proposition. Once students apprehend the structure of textual information as a function of expressing textual intent, unfamiliar vocabulary and grammar can be integrated into the verbal meaning of the text as discourse rather than understood in terms of an individual word, phrase, and sentence. Texts with intents correlated with ostensive meanings can, using the techniques suggested, focus students on whole textual message, a message whose linguistic detail is elaborated in the subsequent discussion of the reading, but which is also expressive of its intent in many redundant features. Since attention was directed not to the details of texts per se, but to those details which served readers as clues or substantiation of textual intent, this type of discussion structure fosters comprehension of vocabulary or grammar as coherent features of an extended proposition. Such an instructional approach is essential if students are to be asked to engage in pleasure reading or subject matter reading which does not depend on an exhaustive grasp of structures and vocabulary, yet does afford learning of detail as functional features of a global propositional meaning (parole) rather than as isolated linguistic features (langue). Beginning students will acquire a degree of detail (contrast words), while advanced ones will be ready to appreciate the structures which best express the contrast.

A. Text Types Whose Overt Intent Is to Engage the Reader
Directly

Texts whose messages are intended for the reader or that

present a message with which the reader can identify, can be divided into five varieties, listed here in order of increasing receiver scope and hence potential comprehension interference:

Directions: Advice intended for the individual text-external reader.

Advertisements: Requests intended for the individual text-external reader.

Pamphlets, brochures, memos, charts, and graphs: Assertions intended for an identifiable text-external reading audience (group, not individual).

Interviews and short fictional dialog genres, such as fables and fairy tales, which are intelligible in terms of questions intended for text-internal receivers to elicit information (not, as is usual in the classroom setting, to confirm that the student knows what the teacher thinks she/he ought to).

Personal letters and diaries: Intended for a particular text-internal reader for whom the nonintended, text-external receiver must substitute in apprehending an optional range of thanking, congratulating, warning, requestion, describing, and so forth

Since intents are universal structures of all verbal meaning, once identified, they serve as the basis for further comprehension. A student who knows what is being asked, described, and so forth, and of or for whom, can start sorting out the patterns of information which reflect textual intent. For example, once the student is aware of the fact that she/he is looking at an ad, it is possible to identify, if nothing else, which sentences are slogan-assertions and which are elaborations or explanations. In other words, a beginning language student with a grasp of text intent and context will have minimal difficulties in locating the type and hierarchy of information characterizing its global message. Such a sorting or identification of various information categories represents the next stage in establishing verbal meaning. Facilitating and

rewarding these efforts is the job of the instructor, since students need to be reassured that it is not only permissible but desirable. This is not difficult to do, but in the author's experience it is rarely done. On the contrary, student efforts at global reading are sabotaged by word-for-word translation, "who," "what," "where," or multiple choice questions that tend to randomize rather than systematize textual information. What follows are suggestions for the types of orientation and implementation that direct students to and reward them for comprehension of global textual message.

B. Directions

Instructions are illocutions intended to be realized as perlocutions and can, therefore, be utilized both to confirm and review comprehension. For a task or communicatively oriented classroom, the reading of instructions integrates itself naturally after the first week or two. The class which has been playing games or drawing pictures on the basis of instructor directions will readily make the transition to reading directions; this represents a minimal shift from impromptu teacher directives to written discourse with similar intents. The comprehension of written instructions asking students to engage in picture drawing or paper folding (origami) can be immediately confirmed by student behavior (a sketch of a cat instead of a hat, a table in the middle of the room instead of in the left hand corner, and so forth). Realia lend themselves readily to instructional tasks, thereby increasing the ostensible reinforcement of the verbal message. Once students

have started engaging in initial production, any number of classroom activities can be introduced based on instructions, for example, directions for a carpentry task are given, and students are to guess what is being built or what task has been left out.

One important use of instructions is to enable a communicatively meaningful practice in reading aloud. Student recitation is normally a dull activity, and research indicates that rote reading aloud seems to inhibit comprehension. A type of recitation that results in actual behaviors contrasts sharply with rote reading. When reading aloud employs the textual message as a speech act, comprehensible input can result. A class can, for example, trace the route of a sightseeing bus in Paris or pantomime sewing dishcloths based on directions read aloud by a student. In such a context, the relative importance of infelicities of pronunciation or intonation will be contingent on comprehensibility. Consequently, when a need to model correct patterns arises, teacher assistance can be prompted by communicative ("X wasn't fully understood") rather than rule-governed ("that was wrong") criteria. In short, instructions are ideal texts for introducing reading because they enable a range of tasks compatible with the initial practices of a natural order sequence.

Advertisements

Since the intent of an advertisement is to sell (request or convince) a particular product to a particular type of potential buyer, the instructor will want to make sure that

students comprehend what the product is and who the probable purchaser may be (the conditions of the utterance). Unlike instructions, the intended receiver will vary, and the student for whom the receiver's probable social and economic status, age, sex, and presumptive educational background and interests are known will have a cognitive advantage because she/he will be able to hypothesize about the probable information types and hierarchies which will appeal to such an audience. The illustrations in ads are, of course, often of considerable benefit. The car type and the person next to it may well suggest a luxury vehicle designed for the mature businessman rather than a family car for middle or lower income newlyweds.

Along with the virtue of being pleasurable reading (they are, after all, designed to catch and keep our attention), ads are an excellent introduction to cultural differences, despite the pervasive influence of Madison Avenue, which can be detected in many foreign ads. The differences are generally with respect to textual conditions. An Italian ad for spaghetti, for example, may subtly introduce the national colors in a tasteful still life. Such patriotic impulses, in turn, will probably be reinforced in textual message and, if so, need to be pointed out to the students in advance of their reading. Similarly, students need to be aware that European ads stress historical traditions rather than the American predilection for trendiness or convenience. The historical details may be trivial in an absolute sense, but as a discourse feature they are enormously significant, since historical resumes tend to be presented in

terms of dates and events, a pattern whose components are easily recognized on the basis of minimal linguistic cues.

The intended buyer and the environmental conditions can be made clear to students in a short preview or hypothesis session preceding the reading assignment--a matter of one or two assertions or questions on the part of the instructor. Following such clarification, students should be able to comprehend the general message of most ads. A standard assignment for this text category should ask students to recognize and locate the information types and attempt to identify the organization or pattern (propositional structure) of that information. The student will not be asked to generate language, only to identify language of the text that corresponds to a propositional structure. Most ads can be read for meaning with the following procedures:

Preview Question (Done with Class to Introduce Reading Assignment)

1. Skim the text and locate features which tell you what product is being sold and to whom (text conditions or environment).

Reading Question (Assignment for both Reading and Class Discussion)

2. Find the places in the text which describe features of the product according to:

(a) contrast between product "X" and product "Y"

(or)

(b) note features of the product and advantages for the buyer that are cited in the text.

B. Brochures, Pamphlets, Memos, Charts and Graphs

Readings of this type are, like ads, intended for a specific real world reading audience. However, the fact that the intent is one of assertion rather than request is an

important distinction. The primary aim of informing is the most neutral of all intents, since what the reader does with this information, or indeed doing anything with this information, is a minimal feature of the message. To be sure, a brochure or chart may also want to sell a concept ("Under present conditions, Social Security programs are going to run out of money by the year X. Something has to be done to prevent this from happening."); a memo can suggest a behavior ("There will be an inventory meeting at 6:45 a.m. All salespersons are expected to attend"), but the information mode is that of neutral assertion of facts. The major comprehension problems posed by such texts is that the question "why am I reading this" is a matter to be determined by the receiver rather than the sender. In sum, whereas the comprehension task with ads necessitates arranging information according to the identifiable intent of this discourse type, the reader's comprehension task in the case of brochures, pamphlets, memos, and charts is to impose an intent on the information and organize it according to a reader-determined system, to find out what it can communicate to them and for what it can be used.

Initially, it will be the instructor's task to identify what students are reading to find out. In a government brochure on the fiscal status of Social Security, the data can be focused by providing readers with the information pattern (the global propositional structure) that expresses the implied intent of an objective assessment. The assignment "Find the textual information referring to (1) the annual sources of income for

the Social Security fund, and (2) its expenditures" renders such a pamphlet intelligible, because students are sorting information according to categories explaining the "why" of its assertions about Social Security, namely, that the fund has fiscal problems.

In addition, identifying a particular reader perspective can alter the implied meaning of a brochure's impartial assertions. The instructor can, for example, hand out target language Eurorail information and ask students to compare the benefits of one- and three-month passes for individuals spending only two months touring Europe, thereby focusing reader attention on a pseudo-application of the otherwise neutral information and engaging them in comparing price ranges, destination, and accommodation options. Some of their determinations will necessarily be speculative ("I think it says something about first class seating on p.3"). This is precisely the kind of reading behavior the teacher wishes to encourage, since research results are unequivocal about students willing to guess at meanings: Guessers are successful comprehenders. Students who do not guess at details of textual meaning (that is, integrate those details into the global pattern of information) are lower achievers in both English and foreign language reading.

Information-oriented texts of the type published in government pamphlets or business brochures are generally available on request at little or no cost. Their classroom value will depend on the student interest level concerning the

information contained. Foreign language presentations of travel, educational, cultural, or employment options in a particular country are, for example, generally of high interest to adult readers. As long as the neutral assertions of the text can be reframed as suggested perlocutionary options ("Based on this information read from this point of view, what can be done with this information?"), even relatively long (four- or five-page) pamphlets are comprehensible. Since the particular point of view will depend on the relationship of the information to the reading audience, the precepts of assignment development for such texts are as follows:

Preview

1. Skim the first paragraph or two and find language that tells you what the text is about and which audience or what kind of reader might find the information useful.

Reading and Subsequent Class Discussion Assignment

2. Pretend you are (a student, businessman, foreigner, and so forth). Select the sentences or paragraphs which tell you

(a) what your options are and

(b) what will happen or result from selection of those options, for example:

<u>option 1:</u>	<u>consequences of option</u>
cheapest Eurorail pass, and so forth	limited travel times and locations

Interviews, Fables, and Fairy Tales

The great advantage of this type of text is that reader comprehension is facilitated because most people are familiar with the conditions or environments of these genres. These conditions, in turn, restrict the intent of questions and responses characteristic of this text type. Since fables are about people and animals outwitting each other, when a fox asks a lamb if she/he is thirsty, the reader knows that a response

lacking cleverness (a direct response rather than a procrastination) is tantamount to a death sentence. In other words, the questions themselves are strong predictors of meaning, if the reader comprehends their implications for the text-internal receiver. Such comprehension, however, involves a reader perspective which has been uncharacteristic of the text types discussed heretofore: a capacity both to visualize and identify with the situation of one or more figures in a text. In the case of the text types discussed here, such identification will probably be familiar to the reader from native-language experience. To be sure, the reader may think the interviewee is a fool, but this, too, is a form of identification since it involves the presumption that the reader would have answered that question very differently!

If the teacher specifies such identification, students can commence looking at interrogative texts from the standpoint of their question/answer patterns. Initially, even the minimal task of locating questions and respective answers in a text will aid global comprehension if it is followed by the subsequent classroom task of characterizing those text segments. A teacher-directed pooling of the incidental comprehension of or speculation about detail of questions and responses builds both vocabulary and reader confidence. Students who are reading a foreign language variant of a familiar genre and scenario will, for example, be able to undertake execution of an assignment such as: "Pretend you are reading a transcript of your own interview and decide which questions asked for facts and which

ones asked for opinions. Then decide which questions you answered factually and where you gave only opinions."

In general, assignments which characterize the different question and answer patterns revealed in these texts are particularly informative, since such patterns reveal the developing direction of character intent; for example, is interviewee Spielberg going to rehash E.T. for the rest of his filmmaking career, or does a pattern of denials and hedges, or the announcement of a forthcoming docudrama suggest another course? Such determinations can generally be revealed in assignments asking students to organize questions and responses according to binary distinctions as appropriate for the particular reading: which questions are agreed/disagreed with, answered directly/answered indirectly or avoided, which questions are straightforward, which are factual/which opinions, and so forth. Individual students will not always agree in their determinations, but precisely their disagreements will lead to a reassessment of the information of these texts in terms of their implied as well as explicit verbal meanings within the system of this language. It is this broader span of implication that renders reading texts not directed toward the individual or another specified text-external audience a difficulty which the instructor should address in making global reading assignments. The assignment variation accounting for this factor might appear as follows:

Preview

1. Find language which describes the setting and the people/animals in this text.

Reading and Class Discussion Assignment

2. Locate and correlate characters' features with their respective questions and responses.

Personal Letters and Diaries

Many personal letters have an easier syntax and a more restricted vocabulary than interviews and folk tales, but two potentially serious comprehension interface factors need to be assessed by the instructor who intends to use letters as comprehensible input for elementary language students. First, the intents of letters vary widely; second, the letter writer can assume knowledgeability on the part of the person to whom the letter is addressed which the text-extrinsic reader may not possess. These are not insurmountable difficulties if the instructor (1) selects letters on the basis of a single or at most two intent focuses (thanking for the thoughtful gift plus inquiring about the family) and (2) selects letters with sufficient contextual specifications (the external reader can read to discover, for example, what the gift was; otherwise, references to the various uses to which it is being put may be obscure or at least less readily comprehensible). Alternatively, if students are extremely interested in either the letter writer or the subject matter of the letters (as might be the case with contemporary, internationally known sports figures, movie stars, or royalty), they may be capable of "filling in the blanks." In either case, previews and assignments for letter reading can aid materially in facilitating student comprehension of global intent and direct their attention to manifestations of that intent in textual

reference. Such assignments would ask students to undertake the following:

Preview

1. Find language which suggests why this letter is being written and gives clues about the identity of the addressee.

Assignment and Classroom Discussion

2. Group information about the key event or idea of this letter according to
characteristics of the event
for example, large attendance at a piano concert
reasons they seem important to writer
for example, the pianist was his wife

3. Based on the information established by undertaking assignment number 2, be prepared to make a few observations about the event described in this letter.

Similar reader comprehension problems with regard to obscurity of reference occur in diary reading. Unlike letters, however, there is a greater likelihood of topical discontinuity. Extended diary reading for the continuity of entries can, therefore, frequently alleviate these difficulties, since references will often be redundant. In most instances, the number of topics will be limited, even though their appearance may be unpredictable and abrupt. Consequently, an appropriate selection, based on a combination of interest value and ostensive propositional structure, can be an ideal choice for extensive pleasure reading. Particularly if the diary is the work of a popular contemporary figure, such as a film star, sports hero, or royalty, inference can take place based on prior reader knowledge, and textual detail will not interfere seriously with pleasure reading. Since the topics of diaries

cannot, in most cases, be previewed quickly, the instructor may wish to specify the range of topics with a more extended reading orientation (perhaps ten rather than five minutes in length) than has been suggested heretofore. Such an orientation would give students clues to the background and personality of the author and would ask the class to note, while reading, features or development of diary entry topics and their respective articulated importance to the author in the same way in which letter reading assignments were constructed above.

There are, of course, additional text types which may be entirely appropriate for a particular class audience. After a few weeks of communicative orientation, graduate students in the sciences have no difficulty comprehending the global messages of journal articles in their discipline. The attempt here has been to correlate text types for identifiable audiences with assignments based on the structures of their verbal meaning: specification of intent and the conditions on it. Because a major comprehension difficulty posed in reading has to do with the progressive abstraction that occurs when the designated purpose for receiving textual messages is unclear, the hierarchy of text types is with respect to clarity of textual aims vis-a-vis a text-external and (later) a text-internal receiver. The list commenced, then, with texts directed expressly at the ostensive behavior of an individual reader (instructions and ads), proceeded to texts intended to affect less directly (via the implication of assertions) a general reader audience (brochures, pamphlets, memos, graphs, and charts), and then

examined two additional types which afford the text-external reader an opportunity to act as a voyeur witnessing the intents and realization of intents between text-internal senders and receivers. If a reading preview establishes the intents and conditions of these respective text types and subsequent classroom discussion confirms a pattern of the textual language which manifests these intents and conditions, beginning foreign language students will be able to engage in pleasure reading and, at the same time, expand their grasp of textual detail within the context of global comprehension.

A. Teacher Assessment of Comprehensible Input

A major problem facing any teacher concerned about comprehensible input is how to measure it and how to integrate the goals of comprehension learning and ultimate production capability. The suggestions made here are predicated on the author's conviction that, to be both meaningful and memorable, the communicative messages of texts must be apprehended by the reader of those texts in terms of that reader's grasp of textual propositions, not of a third person's interpolation of the proposition or a focus on textual detail which is not anchored in the global proposition of the text. In other words, since verbal meaning exists only if shared between sender and receiver, its apprehension in the reading process is a learner/reader undertaking, not a teacher-specified task to be confirmed by the learner/reader. Each learner must learn for him- or herself to communicate with the global and detailed propositions represented by a reading text.

Acceptance of this assertion has pragmatic implications for teacher behaviors. Instructors who want their students to engage in reading for comprehensible input must keep three things in mind. First, if students are expected to respond to or be evaluated on the basis of nonintegrative, discrete point questions about that reading, global textual propositions will tend to be diffused and the quality of the text as comprehensible input diminished, because detail of information will be identified as a discrete linguistic feature rather than a subset of a larger verbal meaning and will tend to be isolated out of its propositional interrelationship with the whole. Second, the entire interrogative posture of the teacher, even if it addresses global meaning (for example, "the main idea of this passage is...", with multiple choice options), locates that meaning in the head of an intermediary receiver, not in that of the students. In effect, this asks students to engage in two comprehension processes: (1) establish what the text says to them and (2) what it probably says to the teacher or test constructor. This makes the psycholinguistic guessing game unnecessarily baroque and, at best, teaches students to be able to apprehend meaning on someone else's terms, rather than engage in the free acquisition of textual language and propositions. The related third point is that comprehension assessments based on matching student and teacher views on textual meaning inhibits speculation or interpretation on the part of the novice reader since answers are definitively "right" or "wrong" and the leeway for aberrant but valid interpolations commensurately

eliminated.

In short, pedagogical behaviors of this sort actively discourage the student behaviors needed to be able to engage in reading for comprehensible input: the focus on main meaning, a relaxed attitude concerning the fact of individual reader articulation of that meaning, and development of reading strategies which encourage integration of a student-selected textual detail into the global proposition of the text. Perhaps most pernicious of all, such practices dictate student behaviors that are passive with respect to both text and textual meaning with the result that reading becomes a cognitively "passive" activity, that is, engaged in only at the level of recall and recognition, not higher order logical processing such as the analytic or synthetic conceptualization needed to locate global meaning or information patterns. As long as teacher practices anchor textual meaning in their own heads rather than the heads of their students, readings are not utilized in the classroom as a source of target language and information about which students think and to which they react-examine, challenge, agree with, or reject. Yet, it is precisely these behaviors which turn formal language into speech acts and allow apperception of language to be turned into acquisition, a passive synthesis to be turned into an active one.

A. An Alternative Comprehension Model

If the definition of verbal meaning presented at the outset of this paper is to be taken seriously, that is, if verbal meaning is transmitted as the apperception of a speech

act, then comprehension processes identify the intent and conditions of a communication. This identification must have a behavioral or verbal correlate in the mind of the receiver commensurate with the verbal definitions of the community of speakers from which the text emanates--it must count as something in actions or words, both for the individual and the linguistic community of the target language. Even if they are engaging in pleasure reading, it is useful for beginning language students to have opportunities to confirm their comprehension and utilize the manipulations of intent and conditions on an utterance described here. Such manipulations, essential for comprehension of verbal meaning, are also the keystones for communicative practice. The issue is not comprehension as divided from production, but a question of expanding comprehensible input in an ascending hierarchy of speech acts required of the students based on the texts and tasks presented to them.

Comprehension hierarchies necessarily mirror the cognitive operations possible for students to undertake at any given point in their linguistic development. Rank beginners will not be capable of more than recognition and recall processes based on language use which corresponds to ostensive meaning (doing something or referring to objects). In practice, they do not have command of structures except those that name or designate. Beginners are not capable of either comprehending or articulating more than depersonalized propositions, those which name, describe, or designate. In other words, what utterances

count as for beginners depends on probability factors contingent on utterance environment, not actual comprehension of the syntax (intent) of propositions.

3. Stage 1: Recognition of Global Meaning Pattern

TPR and task behaviors are an ideal environment for this level because what students are expected to be able to do cannot yet be comprehended or transmitted on the basis of verbal clues. Locutionary comprehension is descriptive only; hence, students conducting tasks (drawing, identifying verbal redundancies, and so forth) on the basis of verbal instruction can perform well as long as the context of the classroom--what the teacher wants them to do--is clear. Similarly, student locutionary use of nouns, verbs, and adjectives, will convey intents on the basis of context in a game such as "Twenty Questions" ("type?" "letters?"). Such use will not be grammatical, but it reflects and conveys a global understanding ("point" + "something blue").

Since they are capable of dealing only with impersonal main meaning components in terms of the target language's propositions, students at beginning levels will need encouragement in verbalizing the target language realizations of main meaning which they can identify in textual language. This task of identification is an important part of pleasure reading for two reasons. First, textual realizations of main meaning reveal the syntactic details which correlate personal intent with the authentic text, thereby focusing attention on illocutionary language structures. Second, students who read

for main meaning without attending to the language the text uses to manifest that meaning will tend to express their understanding in their native language's propositional patterns, thereby engaging in the habit of thinking about foreign language texts on their own linguistic and cultural terms. The result of translation at this level, even if it is summary rather than word for word, is to impoverish the student's experience with the text and the foreign language and culture it represents.

B. Stage 2: Recall of Meaning Patterns

Arrangement of textual information circumvents the temptation of translation and cultural isolationism and also prepares the learner for the next stage in verbal comprehension: the capability of comprehending and expressing textual intent. The expectations at this stage are reflected in the prose assignment for diaries and personal letters, discussed earlier. Whereas in initial readings (the instructions, ads, and/or pamphlets of the first three to eight weeks of instruction) students were asked only to arrange information (a descriptive recognition or locutionary task), readings with individualized intents (types 4 and 5) afford opportunities for students to utilize textual information patterns to express realizations of intent (requesting, thanking, and so forth). The student job will be to uncover, for example, the advice or warning underlying the syntactic propositional realizations of the text, such as "happy piano players make the best wives" (find a wife like the narrator's) or "salespersons must attend inventory meetings", (those who do not show up will be fired).

These illocutionary statements can be expressed by the student in the specific language of the text which, if used by the reader in this way, functions as a surrogate community of speakers by controlling the available syntax and vocabulary. The advantage to learners is that they can engage in the cognitive operation of transforming recognition of textual information into recall of its personalized intent, thereby practicing expressing the intent of the authentic native speaker group of which the text is representative. Because this reading stage is rarely undertaken by native language readers (who tend to impose their opinions about what a text means to them prior to uncovering textual meaning represented in information patterns and intents), the conceptual unfamiliarity of this activity needs to be addressed by the instructor. Given teacher encouragement ("yes, that's what the text says"), however, most students have no difficulty reconstructing sentence articulations that convey features of textual intent. The students, in turn, will have to juxtapose features of textual information and propositions to express the intents they see, rather than draw in random experiences (and uncontrolled vocabulary and syntax from their own opinions). Their job is illocutionary discovery and recall, not giving their own, unsupported opinions.

B. Stage 3. Synthesis of Text Meaning with Reader Meaning

After a week or two of practice at the level of textual recall exercises (single sentence utterances that reproduce textual illocutions), that is, toward the end of the first

semester, students will be ready to take the next step of talking about what the text means to them. The commensurate assignment will ask for student judgment or opinion about the information patterns uncovered in the reading. To undertake the illocutionary opinion assignment "Write a few sentences about why you think (or do not think) the diary writer is justified in feeling sorry for himself," the student will, as in the illocutionary recall assignment, use only the information of the diary but reframe its articulation to realize student, not textual, intent. Such a cognitive operation constitutes a fairly complex synthetic conceptual task, since to articulate the illocution of a personal judgment about a text, the student must integrate or synthesize the meaning structures--the thought systems--of a reading with the thought systems in his or her own head.

Equally important, because these opinions exist in an individual mind, they must be represented in a developed discourse of at least three or four sentences for the logic of the opinion to be discernible to others. The single sentence assertion about the diary writer: "No, he's not justified in feeling sorry for himself. He's just a jerk," is a locutionary statement. It does not answer the question "why" in a manner informative to the community of speakers. Only the elaborated direction of information is informative. The statement series: "He dropped all his friends as soon as he got rich. He didn't pay any attention to his family. He spent all his money on himself," establishes the textual pattern motivating the

reader's judgment: "Because he never thought of anyone but himself, he is friendless and alone. But that's his own fault. That's what happens when you are completely selfish." The assertion "he's a jerk," doesn't tell anyone how to recognize or avoid jerks. The second group of assertions provides listeners with a reader perspective on the textual logic of selfish behavior (issue) resulting in eventual loneliness (implication).

It should be emphasized that if the student had merely re-created a cause-and-effect relationship between the diary writer's behavior and the expressions of regret, that would have constituted a textual not a personal illocutionary statement. In order to personalize an illocution, assertions about the text must be anchored in a reader, not atext-specified, coherence. Only after diary patterns of behaviors and their results (textual thought structures) are correlated with reader values (extratextual thought structures) has the student created an illocutionary statement, a personal version of what the text means.¹⁵

B. Stage 4: Reader Applications of Textual Information

The remaining level of reader/text relationship is that of interpretation or persuasion: the expression of an illocution that is intended to have a perlocutionary effect. Interpretation and persuasion occur when the intent of the speaker's thought system is to manipulate an audience, to make listeners change their thought patterns. A pamphlet on Social Security may, for example, depict a dark future for the fund unless remedial measures are taken (a speech act which warns the

reader), but it is the politician or the economist who turns the implications of this warning (the fund is in serious trouble) into a completely new logic designed to convince an audience that particular measures need to be undertaken either to bolster the fund, revise its benefit scale, or do away with it altogether. The level of linguistic sophistication on which effective persuasion is contingent is succinctly summarized in the capabilities described in the highest proficiency task levels: "represents point of view, negotiates, persuades, counsels, tailors language to audience".¹⁶

After students are comfortable with the sequence of assignments already described (stages 1-3), practice in reader viewpoint can be initiated simply by specification of perlocutionary intent; for example: "You are a book review critic and want to persuade potential readers not to bother purchasing author X's diary." The rest of the class can play the devil's advocate, pretending to be the author's fans who are determined to read the book. Resultant discussions may not always be elegant, but if conducted with teacher support (absence of overt correction and intervention only for purposes of clarification of meaning) they engage even reticent speakers, because passive acceptance of this kind of talk implies acceptance of behaviors dictated by the speaker, a contingency rarely possible in discourse among peers. Moreover, when opinion is anchored in textual information, a reticent student can introduce familiar textual information into the discussion, rather than formulate new propositions.

To persuade effectively, a speaker is engaging in analytic cognitive processes whose effectiveness will depend on a command of the logic of argumentation commensurate with language which encompasses but does not extend beyond the linguistic parameters of the audience being addressed. Such a speaker may incorporate information from one or more texts, but the system or pattern of information arrangement will be completely the speaker's and will no longer reflect the patterns of the original text. This is the vital difference between interpretations (illocutions with perlocutionary intent to change reader reading behavior) and book reports, which at their driest are locutionary or descriptive only, while nominally (that is, not systematically) including re-creations of textual message correlated with reader values.

A. Implications of a Four-Stage Comprehension Model

This chapter has set out to prove a very radical proposition: The structures of verbal meaning associated with comprehensible input are illocutionary patterns which, to be apprehended, must be realized as conceptual purpose by both sender and receiver. If true, this postulate has an attendant implication, that the common designation of comprehension as a passive activity is both erroneous and pedagogically inadequate, because it discourages the apperception of and practice with authentic texts as speech acts. If, to derive meaning from a text, readers must understand not only the conditions of an utterance but also what an utterance counts as, then reading for information and pleasure is seriously handicapped unless a

reader undertakes to establish the illocutionary patterns of a text. The four-stage comprehension model--recognition of meaning pattern, recall of meaning pattern, synthesis of text pattern with reader meaning pattern, and reader applications of textual information to create an independent reader meaning--more adequately accommodates the language learner's development in the following respects.

(1) Beyond the ostensive level at which textual intent can be realized in student real or imagined behaviors, comprehension of meaning can only be acknowledged and confirmed as verbal information pattern. Consequently, it is vital that student readers engage in the articulation of these patterns to confirm whether their comprehension is commensurate with actual textual message.

(2) Since texts afford an authentic parole, and the exemplification of a limited speaker world or linguistic regional ontology representative of that of the target culture, they are an excellent basis for preliminary practice in reproducing speech acts.

(3) Apperceptive stages sequence task difficulty predicated on conceptual rather than linguistic complication. Hence, each practice stage reenforces textual language with respect to message information, thereby increasing student retentive potential, that is, when asked to integrate previously determined textual illocutions and personal opinion, the student is engaged in solving a cognitive problem (synthetic conceptualization), not a formal, linguistic one--the language

involved reflects authentic use. (4) These procedures facilitate using the communicative logic of textual language structures rather than formal rule learning as the basis for fine tuning, in a processing sequence that guides students from the identification of impersonalized global propositions (the semantic langue) to apprehension of the explicit syntax which specifies individual textual message as communicative function (the parole).¹⁷

(5) Because comprehension is directed in terms of a hierarchy of conceptualization which can be accounted for in relationship to a textual message, reading is not passive. This affords classroom activities commensurate with the goals of a natural language sequence.

(6) Student reading assignments, if they are the basis for daily participation and testing procedures as well, structure both the class hour and student evaluation.

(7) The procedures teach and reenforce both global reading and fine tuning based on global comprehension, thereby discouraging translation by rendering it superfluous to understanding.

(8) Reading and discussions are anchored in textual illocutions, thereby facilitating student comprehension of the individual linguistic and cultural conditions from which authentic language emanates and which it reflects.

CHAPTER 3: HOW SHOULD WE TEACH HAUSA?

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Presumably, the first goal of any language class is to teach students how to communicate in that language through understanding and speaking. A second important goal, since many students will never have the opportunity to go where the language is the primary means of communication, is to teach about the culture of the people who use that language. For students of "European" (including U.S. and Canadian) background who are studying African languages, this latter goal is more prominent than for commonly taught European languages for several reasons. First, the differences between African and "European" cultures are vastly greater than those between various "European" cultures. Second, unlike the majority of students of European languages, many who study African languages in the US do so for African "area" interests (cultural, historical, political) rather than for specific linguistic skills, such as communication during travel or reading of literature.

Ironically, Hausa, which has more native speakers than any other Black African language and is second only to Swahili among African languages studied in US universities, has not a single good textbook from either the linguistic or the cultural point of view. To meet these goals, what Hausa needs is, quite simply, a totally new curriculum. What it does not need is yet

another book with some dialogues about marketing and farming and grammatical descriptions and drills which are written by linguists more interested in the structure of Hausa than in teaching it.

I will outline some background research and planning which ideally should serve as preparation for a new Hausa teaching program and then I will discuss how Hausa language classes might be conducted more effectively than they are now.

A. Ideals for Background Research and Planning

B. Linguistic Research

From a linguistic point of view, there are two related problems with currently available Hausa texts: They are based on an inadequate knowledge of Hausa structure, and they are organized descriptively rather than communicatively. These two problems exist for the simple reason that virtually all the authors of widely used texts have been linguists who happened to work on Hausa rather than Hausa specialists who had a thorough knowledge of the full range of Hausa communicative power. This situation was unavoidable at a time when there were no textbooks at all and somebody had to write something; indeed, some of us got a good start in Hausa with such books. Today, however, it would be pointless to attempt to develop new pedagogical materials without fundamental new research into grammatical structure, discourse organization, and functional considerations.

I count myself among those writers to whom I have alluded, but lest I be accused of unjustly maligning a

generation of Hausa researchers, let me give an example of textbooks' inadequacy and of fundamental research remaining to be done. The tense/aspect system has always been described mainly in formal terms, concentrating on the fact that tense/aspect is marked by subject pronouns rather than the verbs themselves and on the supposed syntactic complementarity of the so-called basic versus relative aspects. Very little is ever said about semantics other than that Hausahas "aspect" rather than "tense," that the subjunctive is a "polite imperative" (a disputable statement at best) and is used to express purpose or desire, and so forth. Yet, among advanced Hausa students, the persistent problems are not in morphology or easily defined syntactic distributions, but in using the right form to mean the right thing. While the textbooks have concentrated on drilling forms, what is needed is practice hearing and using the forms in meaningful contexts. I believe the problem has been that the writers of textbooks themselves have not understood the uses of the Hausa tense/aspect forms. A detailed examination of textual uses reveals that descriptions of how these forms are used are woefully inadequate if not downright wrong. Moreover, concentration on form at the expense of function has led to sequencing that impedes development of typical Hausa discourse structures, for example, by treating the so-called relative forms as somehow derived and "difficult"; they are typically placed late in the text even though they are crucial in word question formation as well as focus constructions, which are far more frequent in Hausa discourse than their English syntactic

counterparts.

B. Cultural Research

Rather than fundamental research, what is needed is a serious effort to bring some sort of rationale into the introduction of cultural materials. Most books have made an attempt to include cultural materials in the form of dialogues or readings, but these always function as a vehicle for introducing linguistic structures. They are not chosen or sequenced in a way designed either to be informative about the culture or to provide the student with material that would be useful should s/he actually visit the Hausa-speaking area.

To design lessons with optimal content and sequence is no easy matter. While the typical activities of a visitor to a European country will not seem unfamiliar to an American student (traveling by train, checking into a hotel, ordering in a restaurant, cashing a check, visiting historical points, visiting friends, and so forth), none of these activities would be typical of a visit to northern Nigeria; either they are not typical activities there at all or the Nigerians one would contact in the course of such activities would be fluent English speakers who might not even speak Hausa. Even those activities which have "European" counterparts take on a different cultural cast.

Again, to show where current textbooks are weak or fail entirely, I will simply list some areas which personal experience has shown to play an important role in everyday conversation and behavior but which are addressed at best

briefly if at all. Islam is, of course, fundamental to all aspects of Hausa life, from overt religious practices such as obligatory prayers, religious festivals, and alms-giving to more subtle and difficult to grasp areas such as household structure and food taboos. While tribalism is decried by African leaders, recognition of ethnic identity is a strong force in daily African life, and any visitor to Nigeria who does not have some idea of the main ethnic groups and what differentiates them is "out of it." African foods and meals are entirely different from what most "Europeans" are used to. There is no English counterpart to tuwo and miya, and many of the ingredients to these staples of Hausa diet are also foreign to "Europeans." A visitor to a Hausa household should have some idea how a compound is organized as well as such culturally important facts as taboos on using the left hand and the fact that men eat separate from women and children. The market, of course, is the center of African commerce, and most textbooks do have their "marketing units," but to my knowledge none discusses certain important aspects of trading in which a U.S. visitor might well become involved, especially the notion of the middleman and his commission when buying or selling relatively expensive items.

B. Audio and Visual Aids

Whereas nearly all modern textbooks for European languages have photographs, none of the published Hausa textbooks do. Yet African language textbooks most need visual aids because of the major differences between the African and "European" environments in every respect. The ideal course

would have extensive slide files to illustrate these cultural aspects. Films would also be a valuable supplement, but slides or filmstrips would provide a better source of classroom discussion.

Tapes could also be useful for the classroom or language laboratory. Here I have in mind taped description or discussion for listening aimed at the students' approximate achievement level in comprehension rather than grammatical drills and/or dialogues which the students would repeat or work actively on. (See remarks in the next section for my view on the language lab.)

Finally, classroom "realia" would be an important accompanying feature to cultural material. On the one hand, typical objects of the classroom (book, blackboard, table, chalk, and so forth) are not common subjects of Hausa conversation; on the other, ubiquitous items in Hausa country (calabashes, mats, Koranic "slates," baskets, enamelware, and the like) are unfamiliar to most U.S. students.

A. Teaching Hausa

B. A Hausa Textbook

A major lacuna in the Hausa curriculum is an intermediate level text. A few books purport to be aimed at this level, but there is nothing like a true text. Since we are talking about fundamental change in the way Hausa is taught, it seems only reasonable that the elementary and intermediate texts should be viewed integrally. My critical remarks above have been directed at elementary texts, but it makes no more sense to design a new

elementary text which dead ends into nothing for second-year students than it does to design an intermediate text which builds on the flawed foundation of current elementary texts.

The discussion above focused on inadequacy of existing texts and areas which must be addressed in order to produce a text that would make any significant advance over what is now available. I have said nothing about the form of the text itself and indeed am not prepared to address that issue in any detail. However, I do have some ideas about what such a text should and should not be. All existing books are either grammar/translation or mim/mem-pattern drill. Much recent second language acquisition research stresses the flaws in these methods, and the inadequacies that I have noted in the Hausa texts in part stem from the methodologies themselves. Any new text should be organized so as to promote communication skills rather than to list grammatical points as the linguist might describe them. Successful in this regard are "direct" methods that use only the target language in the classroom and in the textbook itself (where there is a textbook). Grammar, if it is ever explicitly discussed, is introduced as a corollary of meaningful communication, not as the organizing medium for the text, and grammar is presented in the target language, its discussion being part of the communicative experience.

One problem for such a method in Hausa has been the lack of any tradition of linguistic study in the language. If a textbook is to be written in Hausa, there must be the technical vocabulary available to write it, a nontrivial problem. In

recent years scholars in Nigeria have been developing such technical vocabulary, and although this is still in some flux, it is must less a problem than formerly. Indeed, a thoughtfully developed Hausa pedagogical text could further the creation of such technical vocabulary. This issue raises a point I consider of the highest importance in the teaching of not only Hausa, but also other widely spoken African languages. This is the value of reading as a pedagogical tool. While I have no sort of hard evidence, I sense that most of us think of African languages as vehicles of oral communication, with writing as a sort of modern accretion of minimal interest per se. In modern Africa this is no longer true. Publications in Haisa are on the increase; there are a number of widely read Hausa language newspapers; advertising, road signs, and so forth, in Hausa are now ubiquitous in northern Nigeria. In short, modern Hausa is a written language, and we should be taking advantage of this fact in teaching it. Reading and writing can be powerful pedagogical tools for adult second language learners, and in my opinion it is silly to exclude these skills from the classroom. For example, more extensive use of written materials could go far in helping in the acquisition of the tense/aspect forms mentioned above. What we lack at present are extensive materials which would be interesting reading for adult languages learners but which are at a level that, say, a second-quarter Hausa student could read and understand. Creating such materials would thus be part of overall curriculum development.

B. Language Lab and Native speakers in the Classroom

I personally have never liked working in a language lab nor have I ever found it particularly helpful in second language learning. Far more useful has been reading aloud to myself at a rate at which I could understand in the language what I was reading. There are those who find the lab useful, however, and I doubt that its abolition would be widely accepted.

I do have stronger feelings about the use of native speakers in the classroom. The ideal of course, would be for the teacher to be a native speaker and also a trained language instructor. Unacceptable is either an untrained teacher who happens to be a native speaker or a trained teacher who does not speak Hausa and relies on a native speaker being present as a model. Neither of these situations would be acceptable for any modern European language, and they should not be for Hausa either. In any university, probably the majority of the teachers of elementary French, Spanish, or German are not native speakers. Why should different rules apply to Hausa? It has now been taught in European and U.S. universities for around two decades; hundreds of Americans have learned Hausa in Nigeria or Niger while serving in the Peace Corps, doing field work, and so forth. In other words, there should be enough trained people around who speak Hausa, either as native speakers or as reasonably good second language speakers, to teach classes in Hausa. This is not to say that a nonteaching native Hausa speaker should not be an occasional visitor to a class as a resource person to discuss (in Hausa) aspects of Hausa culture

or to serve as an additional person to provide fluent input and stimulate conversation, but the everyday situation should be that the person who runs the class should also be the one who talks to the class in Hausa.

A. Summary

In short, to develop a good Hausa curriculum, we need to start from scratch in every respect. On the one hand, we need a fundamental rethinking of linguistic structure and cultural background. On the other, we need to quit thinking of Hausa language itself as "exotic" and hence requiring methods somehow different from successful methods used in European language teaching. In particular, conduct of the class in Hausa by a fluent teacher (rather than the linguist-informant format) and extensive use of the written language should be part of any new curriculum.

APPENDIX

Following is a list of most of the "modern" Hausa textbooks (those written since around 1960).

- Bagari, D.M., W.R. Leben, and F. Knox. 1979. Manual of Hausa Idioms. Indiana University Linguistics Club.
- Cowan, JR., and R.G. Schuh. 1976. Spoken Hausa. Ithaca, N.Y.: Spoken Language Services, Inc.
- Hodge, C.T., and I. Umaru. 1963. Hausa Basic Course. Washington, D.C.: Foreign Service Institute.
- Hunter, L. 1981. Karatu! Farkonka Madaci, Karshenka Zuma. Madison, Wis.: African Studies Program.
- Jungraithmayr, H., and W.J.G. Mohlig. 1976. Einführung in die Hausa-Sprache (Kursus für Kolleg und Sprachlabor). Marburger Studien zur Afrika-und Asienkunde. Ser. A: Afrika, 7. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
- Kraft, C.H., and A.H.M. Kirk-Greene. 1973. Teach Yourself Hausa. London: The English Universities Press, Ltd.
- Kraft, C.H., and M.G. Kraft. 1973. Spoken Hausa: Introductory Course. Los Angeles: UC Press.
- Maxwell, J.L., and E.M. Forshey. 1963. Yau da Gobe. Jos, Nigeria: Sudan Interior Mission.
- Skinner, A.N. 1971. Hausa Language Course. Madison, Wis.: Department of African Languages and Literature.

CHAPTER 4: CONSIDERATIONS FOR SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL LANGUAGE
MATERIAL FOR THRESHOLD LEVEL ACQUISITION
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This outline of a manual for self-instruction in the oral acquisition of a language as an adult has three major components. I will present briefly relevant principles of the current state of knowledge about adult language acquisition. I will propose contents which the manual should have to promote the instruction of any language. I will then discuss the extent to which it should contain special features for self-instruction in African languages.

I would like to stress the terms oral, and acquisition, which I have just used, to avoid any possible misunderstanding: The manual being considered should promote oral acquisition only. The argument for a focus on the oral aspects of the language and not on those of reading and writing is straightforward. Learning to read and write a language through self-instruction poses few problems that would not also be encountered in the traditional language teaching classroom. Reading and writing a language, unless they are learned after oral fluency has been acquired, are after all intellectual exercises in decoding and recoding well suited to self-instruction, for which no special manual need be written. In fact, any traditional language text or grammar that provides illustrative examples of structures of the language would be all that a student needs to formalize some aspect of the underlying structure and to form new well-constructed examples. This can

be done with the help of, but more often despite, discussions and descriptions of the grammar provided in such texts. Writing such a text, whether for self-instruction or classroom use, requires little more than a grammarian's knowledge of the language and the energy to present it through clear descriptions and well-chosen examples.

When no such texts exist, learning to read and write a language is reduced to a problem in linguistic field methods and analysis, one for which helpful texts already exist (see Samarin 1967, Kibrik 1977). A self-instruction language manual therefore, should concentrate on that aspect of language acquisition which is not only the most important but also often the most neglected: oral fluency.

Acquisition was also stressed. It is used here as a technical term. The process of acquiring a second language has been well defined and contrasted with that of learning by Belyayev (1964), Krashen (1976), and Krashen and Scarcella (1979) and need not be discussed at length here. Suffice it to say that acquisition (in contrast to learning) internalizes structures of the language without any conscious attempt to formulize or memorize, and it is the most efficient and possibly the only way to acquire fluency. Learning, in contrast, demands the conscious assimilation of rules which attempt to describe what is known about the formal system of the language, practice in the application of these rules in the stream of speech, and the memorization of lexical items usually paired to the first language. It results in attempts to communicate through rule

application, and coding and decoding from L1 to L2, attempts that approximate fluency in only a few of the most skilled learners.

A text written with an emphasis on oral fluency for use in the regular classroom is organized to help the teacher introduce material directly, that is, without recourse to any other language, and to exercise it in the classroom through communicative interaction. Progressive introduction of the material occurs in a logical sequence determined by a compromise between communicative needs and the complexity of certain structures of the target language. Increasingly complex structures and a growing lexical inventory are presented in the target language, along with exercises and some directions for class activities. Such texts are useful but, it is important to note, rely in large part on the training of the teacher using them for the particular methodological approach applied in the classroom. Obviously, this cannot be the case for self-instruction. On the contrary, a manual for self-instruction in any language should expect the learner to be rather ignorant of the modern principles of second language acquisition and remedy this as effectively as possible.

A. Language Acquisition and the Adult Learner

The first chapter of a self-instruction manual for any language, therefore, could be entitled "Language, Language Acquisition, and the Adult Learner." It should concisely and effectively pass on to the reader some of the most important aspects of second language acquisition for the adult learner. I

will mention only a few of these.

(1) There is no critical period for language learning, and lateralization, whenever it does occur, probably has no negative effect on the process of adult language acquisition (see Krashen 1973; Snow 1978; Bever 1981).

(2) The adult language learner is clearly superior to the child in all aspects of language acquisition, with the possible exception of accent.

(3) Acquiring a language is a process radically different from that of learning it and, given the proper psychological and linguistic environment, much easier to achieve.

(4) One can only acquire a language on its own terms, independently of the formal system and lexical inventory of any other language.

(5) A language is best acquired orally. This skill then can be applied relatively easily to reading and writing in most orthographic systems: the reverse is not true.

(6) One can acquire a language orally only through active use, in actual communication with other speakers (see Stevick 1976, 1980).

(7) A language "bond" in a single language is quickly established by speakers who may have a choice of languages. Establishing such a bond in the target language immediately is very important.

(8) The psychological well-being of the learner is of paramount importance during the acquisition process. Learning

should occur in a calm, secure, comfortable atmosphere, one which fosters ease of communication (see Lozanov 1978, Grabe 1979, Stevick 1982).

Other important principles should no doubt be presented in the manual. It would certainly be useful to discuss the relative universality of languages, to remove any lingering thoughts that a particular language might employ strange, "exotic" processes, or that it might have any superiority over or inferiority to any other language for any expression of social need. On a more practical level, some discussion concerning the progressive acquisition of semantic parameters independently of any other language will also be helpful (see especially Belyayev 1964).

A. Working with the Language Assistant

The second chapter should provide some guidance for working with the language assistants. The advice should be concerned with the working strategy and the rapport between the learner and the assistants, taking into consideration the very special setting where the learner should also be in control of the working sessions.

In order to progress effectively and rapidly the learner must establish a language bond in the target language with the assistants as quickly as possible. Any other language should only be used when absolutely necessary and in such a way that it is psychologically separated from learning sessions. A clear distinction should be made between activities of an organizational nature and those of language acquisition. The

two should occur preferably at different times.

An ideal working relationship between the learner and the assistant should have several elements. (1) The learner is always in control and determines the structure of the meetings, initiating discourse and asking questions in the target language that result in the introduction of new material in a logical fashion. At the same time, the atmosphere is such that useful supplementary material is introduced naturally by the assistant as a direct result of communicative interaction. (2) The assistant is completely in control of the target language and is not adversely affected by the learner's control of the session. The assistant therefore produces utterances in the language with confidence and corrects the learner by providing the correct model as often as is necessary and with no inhibitions. (3) The assistant is not expected to offer any analysis of the target language and is in fact strongly, but gently, discouraged from doing so. (4) Any conscious attempt to focus on the structure of the language by the learner should only occur through the elicitation of actual language and natural paradigms. (5) Apparent inconsistencies in the language produced by the assistant are recognized as evidence of imperfectly formed premises about the language by the learner and are not queried directly.

Language assistants who are not, and should not be expected to be, trained teachers inevitably feel worried, at a loss, and inadequate when asked to contribute to the acquisition process in the manner described above. This is especially the

case when they have had formal grammarian or linguistic training in the target language. The learner therefore should be advised to take control of all pedagogical aspects immediately, thereby freeing the assistant of doubts and worries concerning the structure of the meetings and the activities conducive to acquisition.

A. What Should Be Learned and When

The third chapter should give the learner a rather precise idea of what material should be acquired during the course of instruction and, generally speaking, in what order this should be done for any language.

A description of what aspects of the language should be acquired in terms of sentence structures and lexicon will depend for the most part on semantics and should be applicable to any language with minor modifications. However, the order in which these are acquired and the amount of time spent on specific structures to promote acquisition will differ for different languages.

The lexicon needed for threshold acquisition should not be difficult to determine. Many word lists have already been prepared for linguistic elicitation. From these, and from common sense, a core vocabulary should easily be established (see Gattegno 1972).

Most experienced teachers and language learners would probably agree that 1,000 well-chosen core lexical items would be more than sufficient for fluent speech at this level.² Of those items, I estimate without any empirical data that fewer

than 100 would be particular to some major aspect of the physical and cultural environment in which a given language is spoken. Although these numbers are rather arbitrary, I doubt very much that an actual count of the lexical items used in normal daily conversation by first speakers would result in any significant change.

Whereas agreeing on a core lexicon for all language learners should not be difficult, the question of what aspects of the "grammar" of a language should be acquired at the threshold level may not easily be answered. The way in which utterances in different languages are structured might, at the surface level at least, be considered to differ markedly and provide different challenges to the learner. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that the messages conveyed by these different organizations, the semantic load, is much the same.

Theoretical linguistics provides us with various models which, among other things, attempt to capture the generalities of syntactic structures. The deep structure of generative grammars, the case grammars, and more recently the conceptual dependency grammars of Artificial Intelligence scholars all provide means of formalizing these similarities while linking them in varying degrees to semantic content. These models are, however, too complex to be of much help in describing what structures should be acquired during a threshold level self-instruction course (see Roulet 1975).

Much more useful for our needs and less formalized is the Functional/Notional approach (van Ek 1976), which is completely

based on semantics and the need for communication. Van Ek describes language through its communicative purpose and defines six major functions, primary motives for initiating language use. Each of these is applied to 14 major topic areas which he identifies. Each of the permutations of the functions and the topics can be applied to a few hundred notions, some of which he calls general, others specific. For example,

the utterance "I have a toothache" stems from

Function: Imparting factual information

Topic: Health and welfare

General notion: Parts of the body

Specific notion: Teeth

This analysis of language utterances may appear simplistic and is certainly open to debate concerning the classifications and their interaction. Nevertheless, even a cursory look at van Ek's work is convincing. Normal everyday language use is thoroughly described in an orderly fashion through surface semantics. The permutation of the functions, the topics, and the general and specific notions provide a detailed yet basic semantic syllabus for language acquisition. I estimate that most of the material he lists could be covered in fewer than 200 hours of classroom language study.³

If one accepts the functional/notional approach as a guide for the design of the syllabus, one is still faced with the problem of logical progress since the semantic concepts so outlined are not ranked in any order of importance for acquisition of fluency. To determine which semantic concepts to introduce at a given time and how these should be ordered in relation to one another, one must consider the potential for

linguistic complexity and weigh this against the need for affective communication. Thus, although in many languages the structure for "my name is..." is usually more complex than that for "I want X," given its use of the possessive and its potential for a passive construction, its level of usefulness for communication should result in its early inclusion in the syllabus.

In the organization of a syllabus for self-instruction, the ranking of structures for order of inclusion should also be made with some regard to pedagogical principles. Thus, greetings, which are so important in triggering the language center, should be practiced at the very onset of the acquisition process. Thereafter it becomes important for the learner to be able to query, identify, qualify, refer to the self, and move objects and people with language as quickly as possible, since these linguistic skills are necessary to create affective language learning sessions.

Other considerations for progressive assimilation of material in any language will be determined by universals in language organization, possibly as indicated by transformations. It is generally safe to assume that surface structures described by generative grammars as the result of the application of numerous transformations will be more difficult to acquire than those more directly linked to the deep.

It should be possible, therefore, to draft an outline of a syllabus for the acquisition of any language, realizing that the individual features of a given language will require that

some changes be made during the instruction. These changes will involve structuring the amount of time spent in acquiring a particular concept in proportion to the degree of distinctions made in that area by the language. Structures that are too complex at the very beginning will, in some cases, be postponed to a later time.

A. Special Considerations for African Languages

I have had experience teaching and learning African languages in three of the four major families presently recognized: Nilo-Saharan (Kipsigis), Niger-Kongo (various), and Afro-Asiatic (Hausa). I am aware that even within a group of related languages some major structural and lexical differences can be observed and that African languages present a wealth of linguistic variety. Despite this situation, I propose that when the goal is oral fluency through an acquisition process, the learner will need very little advice specific to a given language or language family.

The fact that many African languages use tone lexically and grammatically might be worthy of special consideration. Yet, beyond warning the student that pitch is distinctive and that it should be paid close attention, not much else can be done. Giving students a list of the tonemes of a given language and the sandhi rules operating on them hinders the acquisition of the system rather than providing help for it. Selecting the lexicon in such a way that certain tones and tonal patterns are introduced gradually seems to make little more sense than introducing words with only certain vowels in a nontonal

language. A tonal system as complex as it may appear in linguistic analysis, can be acquired as naturally as any other aspect of language.

The same can be said for other stereotypical features of some African languages. The fact that languages such as Hausa and Fulfulde have complex nominal pluralization systems will be obvious enough to the learner, as will a Bantu noun class concord system, a Nilotic verbal extension system, a Kwa serial verb system, or Khoisan click phonology. Whatever allows a student to internalize an Indo-European case system or complex tense/aspect marking system through communication and language use will operate just as effectively when applied to African languages.

In conclusion therefore, I propose that much of what a learner needs in a manual for self-instruction at the threshold level is not language specific. The advice needed on the nature of language, on the psychological nature of second language acquisition, on the ideal working relationship with an assistant, and on the material to be acquired applies to any language. It is likely that a simple warning about areas of particular complexity in a given language or language family would be sufficient information for the learner.

1. Once a language has been acquired fluently, the process of reading and writing is no longer a plodding intellectual one, but rather one that uses the acquired grammar much as a first speaker does to produce and understand written texts. The only remaining intellectual aspect in reading and writing a language after oral acquisition, stylistics aside, is that demanded by the vagaries of the orthography of some languages.

2. My first-year Swahili text has only 746 different lexical items, and this includes all the allomorphs produced by the nominal class system. After completing the course, first-year students have no difficulty expressing themselves on any topic at the threshold level in which a given language is spoken. Although these numbers are rather arbitrary, I doubt very much that an actual count of the lexical items used in normal daily conversation by first speakers would result in any significant change.

3. I have prepared 100 lessons of one hour average duration for threshold acquisition for self-instruction, and I estimate that approximately 75 percent of van Ek's material is
c o v e r e d b y t h e s e .

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CHAPTER 5: LANGUAGE AS COMMUNICATION: THE SOCIOCULTURAL ASPECT
OF LANGUAGE TEACHING
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People learn foreign languages for a variety of reasons. Very few have a purely academic interest in the subject. Many will want to use the language as a tool for some other professional purpose. In the case of African languages there may be only one textbook. Can these various needs be catered for in a single course? Not specifically, I think. But if we look beneath the specific requirements of, say, future doctors, anthropologists, cultural attaches, tourists, or businessmen, we can see that the basic motivation for language learning is a desire or need to communicate. Language learning is not the same thing as learning about language. Language is actually about people. Language learning does not take place in a vacuum; it is learning to communicate with people. What sort of things do people want to communicate, and how can they do it? I would like to suggest that the functions of language can be represented as communication in various specific ways, and that certain language behavior can be used to effect this communication. The need to communicate in specific areas will be the same for all languages, but how it is done will be different for each language. A plan is appended as an example of what needs to be covered in a language course that aims to help the student to communicate. What goes into each category will vary according to the specific language, but the categories

will be the same for all languages. What goes into each category will vary with the language is because language represents the culture or the outlook of the speaker. The categories will be the same for all languages because we are all human.

The sequence of categories in the outline represents, I think, a sort of natural order of priorities in the need to communicate in a foreign context, but I am not suggesting this is necessarily a sequence to be followed in the teaching. For example, many aspects will be covered in a single communication. I should like to discuss these categories, give examples of their possible contents and also suggest how they might be incorporated into - indeed, can inform - the whole textbook. My examples will be from Swahili. I do not suggest that my outline is necessarily complete even for Swahili, let alone for other languages.

A. Social Behavior

The first thing a person wants to communicate to others is that he or she is an acceptable member of society, and to do this a person has to behave in certain formal ways, which involve formal (or formulaic) language. Here language is an adjunct, and the linguistic expressions needed are formal and cannot be deduced from a knowledge of the structure of the language. Expressions need to be learned as a whole and in context. For example, the word bwana is a term of address that can mean the equivalent of "boss," "sir," "Mr." (followed by name), "husband," or "fellow," and its meaning depends on the

user and the context. It need not refer to a male person; a woman can address another as bwana. The student needs to know not just that the word exists but what it means in context. The textbook can explain the various uses in a footnote, or the teacher can use the word in different contexts throughout the course, or a combination of these approaches can be used. The student needs to know not only what the greetings and responses are, how to vary them according to the social context, and who initiates them, but also, in the case of a European learning Swahili, that it is considered brusque if not rude to omit them, because they are a means of establishing oneself as a civilized, well-disposed person and they are not, say, requests for information although they may take that linguistic form, and although they may lead on into an exchange of information.

A. Getting Services/Information

The second thing a person wants to do through language is control other people so that they provide or do what he or she wants. In fact, many textbooks have sections on such topics as shopping, buying tickets, and posting letters. In real life not much language is needed to get basic needs fulfilled - one can point and gesticulate in markets and shops. This kind of situation is usually included in textbooks as a covert means of teaching things like counting, telling the time, and dealing with money. These matters can be fun and, of course, involve learning if dealt with practically; but where language and culture really come in is when one wants to bargain in the market, or needs to know how to estimate what a Swahili-speaking

friend means if he says he will be at your house at 6 o'clock, or how long he expects you to stay if he asks you to his place for lunch. Again, these matters can be explained specifically in the textbook but it is more fun and I think more memorable if, for example, there is a situation of misunderstandings in your the for study.

A. Relationships

Learners will want to get on well with people who stand in a variety of relationships to them, so they need to know how to interact. For example, young students are always interested in know what sort of behavior is expected with members of the opposite sex and what language is appropriate. Without going too deeply into a matter where actions speak louder than words, it seems to me essential to make clear that the sort of language and behavior expected between people in their social roles may vary widely from one culture to another. The matter of servants/employees is especially delicate cross-culturally. And although relationships between friends may seem superficially to constitute less of a minefield than those between employer and employee, a good deal of heartache can ensue if friendly overtures are not recognized or false expectations are aroused. Although the learner is perhaps unlikely to become a member of a family in the host country, some knowledge of the family system is a great help to understanding. For example, kinship terms are not necessarily used as the foreigner might expect. A person may refer to relatives quite far removed as ndugu yangu ("my brother/sister") although they may strictly be cousins (for

which a precise term exists when specific reference is needed); or a father might address his young daughter as mama ("mother") when wishing to placate her; or a husband might introduce his wife as mwenzangu ("my friend"), thus avoiding the sexual implications of the word for wife; or a grandmother may address her grandson as bwana wangu ("my husband"), since there is a special "teasing" relationship between grandparents and grandchildren. Not only is all this interesting, but also understanding how the system works helps one comprehend what is being said and the pressures to which a colleague or employee may be exposed; and if one should be lucky enough to be introduced to a friend's family, one needs to speak with the right degree of deference to the various members. In the course book some of this can come out as terms of address, some under greetings. (For example, any woman of suitable age is likely to be asked how the children are. This is a formal enquiry and not only would it be strange to reply anything other than that they are well, but also it carries the Swahili implication that everyone has children, if not one's own, then those of brothers, sisters, or cousins, who "are" one's children.) It can be disastrous if mistakes are made; if one spoke to a potential lover as if to a servant, one would not get very far; if one spoke to a servant as if to a lover, one might get where one did not want to get. Dialogues should make some of these distinctions clear, but explanations can also be helpful.

A. Interpersonal

Interacting verbally on a personal level entails quite

sophisticated use of language, but in many cases the right expressions are vital for sustaining good relationships. For example, one needs to know how to say no to food one does not want or like without giving offense - this can easily be introduced in conversations at meals; or one needs to recognize whether one is being invited to do something or told to do it. Realistic situation material will give the opportunity to include examples of this type of language use.

A. Emotional

The learner may need to express his or her own feelings and certainly will want to recognize the feelings of others. In my experience students much enjoy acquiring and using expressions for surprise, horror, disgust, and so forth, and again these can be introduced naturally in dialogue and supplemented if required in explanations.

A. Social Environment

Some of these sometimes get dragged boringly into textbooks as lesson material. I myself feel they should come in as background. For example, mention of times of day in Swahili involves something about Islam since the day is segmented according to prayer times. Medicine and festivals are often a great source of interest. Students always want to know about witch-doctors and unusual initiation ceremonies. Properly handled, what starts as a rather prurient curiosity can lead to enlightenment.

A. Imagination

Some idea of what is available and considered of value in

a culture should come across to the student. For example, in Swahili the quality of ufasaha ("eloquence") is highly prized. Something about popular culture is always of interest to students and can easily be included. The study of literature may have to come quite late, but among the Swahili poetry is highly prized, and newspapers often devote an entire page to poetry or verse sent in by readers. Some of this is not too difficult, and it is of interest not only in itself but also because it is often a subtle vehicle for more or less covert political and social comment.

A. Body language

Here we are moving out of spoken language, but some emotionally meaningful expressions are accompanied by gestures some of which have specific meanings in themselves. I think it useful to point out the most common ones, especially if they differ greatly from those of the student's first language. It is quite easy to get this wrong; for example, Europeans have a habit of smiling to indicate friendliness toward people they do not know. To a Swahili this does not indicate friendliness but either half-wittedness or that the smiler is laughing at him. The student needs to know that a serious face does not indicate unfriendliness, but that words of greeting are what break the ice. It is easy to imagine a situation in which a European approaching a Swahili village smiles at an approaching solemn-looking Swahili, who then scowls. The more the Swahili scowls the more broadly the European smiles, trying to placate this frightening looking character, who scowls more and more.

Finally, the two pass on their separate ways, each thinking what an ill-mannered brute he has met. Another example is the question of looking at the person addressed. The European feels that if a person does not look at him, something is being concealed, or that the person does not like him. But a well-brought-up Swahili girl would not look a man in the face when talking to him. Any girl who did so might be thought to be of loose morals.

A. Concepts

These truly inform language, but using the concept of necessity, as an example, we find that for the Swahili the concept consists of a number of (sometimes overlapping) ideas, such as physical force, moral force, legal duty, tradition, social mores, common sense, lack of alternative, and so on. If a Swahili wants to say you must/ought to do such-and-such, the words used will reflect a particular kind of necessity. Concepts of ownership are also of great importance. For example, one needs to know what "mine" and "yours" indicate. Misunderstandings on this score have certainly led to historical mistakes, as in the case of the concept of land ownership in Kenya.

A. Taboos

This is actually antilanguage, that is, what not to say or do. I think it a disgrace if the potential visitor is not told what not to do. For example, it is not proper for a man to inquire after another man's wife when greeting him, because this suggests a too personal interest. One can ask how are things at

home, which would be taken to include the wife. Perhaps swearing might be included here, since it may occur, even if it should not. Students generally love learning to swear.

A. Realistic Situations and Practical Information

These come under the sociocultural heading rather than language. So many books seem to suggest the foreign country is bland. I would like to see both good and bad situations included - car accidents as well as how to buy petrol; encounters with low life as well as polite teaparties, if only by way of warning. I would like to see basic practical information conveyed, such as what to wear in order to be comfortable and not give offence, or how to ask for and behave in the toilet. These matters can arise out of texts or they could be included in advice to the potential visitor, who needs to know something of how to act in a variety of situations, not only in polite society.

A. Conclusions.

My contention is that students will not be able to learn language well, however cleverly we organize the structure patterns, vocabulary, tapes, and so on, unless the course enables them to interact with others and express themselves, or fulfill practical and social needs. Of course, precisely what is important will vary from one language/society to another. But unless a course introduces the student truly to the new society it is really a cheat, because understanding the words without their social meaning is poor stuff indeed.

APPENDIX

1. Social behavior

Formal:

terms of address
greetings
farewells
enquiries
news, good and bad
responses
calls
telephoning
letters
table manners
conversational gambits

2. Getting services/information

shopping
bargaining
traveling: public, private
eating
cooking
arrangements
directions
numbers
amounts
prices
time

3. Relationships

men, women
generations
employees
clients
friends
marriage, in-laws
families (extended)
community relations
obligations
officialdom
(police, public services)

4. Interpersonal

inviting
offering
accepting
rejecting
borrowing
requesting
demanding
ordering
complying
responding
refusing
complaining
condoling
teasing
gossiping
come-ons
put-offs

5. Emotional

sadness
pleasure
anger
disgust
concern
fear
aggression
hunger
withdrawal
surprise
offense

6. Social environment

religion
politics
ethnography
geography
medicine
education
agriculture
urbanization
festivals
entertainment

7. Imagination

story-telling
literature

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>8. <u>Body Language</u></p> | <p>7. <u>Imagination, continued</u>
 music
 art
 pop culture</p> |
| <p>9. <u>Concepts</u>
 time (dates, seasons)
 place
 state
 being
 health
 necessity
 possession, ownership
 authority</p> | <p>10. <u>Taboos</u>
 swearing, and so forth</p> |
| | <p>11. <u>Situations</u>
 good, bad
 robbery
 cheating
 parties
 travel, and so forth
 accidents</p> |
| | <p>12. <u>Practical</u>
 dress
 ablutions, and so forth</p> |

Author's note: A useful resource is M.A.K. Holliday's Learning How to Mean, Explorations in the Development of Language, (Edward Arnold Publishing Co., London, 1975).

CHAPTER 6: STUDENTS' WANTS AND NEEDS FOR GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION
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I will argue that while previous conscious learning of grammatical structures may not be necessary for language acquisition, it is an important facilitator for at least production and probably for acquisition in a language with much inflection. Specifically, I will argue that many grammatical structures should be overtly presented by the instructor and through written materials to students acquiring a Bantu language as a second language.

These languages are characterized by much inflection. This is most obviously the case if we consider their extensive noun class systems, which require morphologically marked agreement between modifiers and nouns as well as between verbs and their subjects and sometimes their objects. Chichewa, for example, one of the two Bantu languages whose teaching I will discuss here, has 18 noun classes. Furthermore, Bantu languages also have a very complex verbal morphology, with a number of both prefixes and suffixes typically occurring, governed by co-occurrence restrictions in many cases. The result is that there are very few free forms in Bantu languages. Thus, in order to produce sentences, the speaker must not simply call up words, but construct words. To be sure, students can eventually realize what goes with what if they have sufficient input, but the right kind of overt teaching can certainly shorten the process.

However, while I argue for the overt presentation of grammar in Bantu language classes, let me make clear that my goal is not to teach students to state grammatical rules. Students are not expected to produce rules; they are expected to apply them and produce well-formed sentences. What I teach, therefore, is the application of rules. I do not expect the rules to be available in the student's consciousness for spontaneous report. In this sense, the competence for which I am aiming is similar to that resulting in the case of acquisition. Krashen has distinguished conscious knowledge of rules from acquisition, arguing that being able to state a rule does not mean a student has acquired a rule so that he/she will consistently apply it. I am arguing that there is certainly another possible point on the scale of grammatical knowledge between conscious knowledge (that is, being able to state the rule) and acquisition (tacit knowledge, representing internalization of the rule). This is application-of-the-rule knowledge.

What goes on in the classroom when I teach application of a rule? An important overall strategy is that rules are typically presented in a visual, schematic form so that students literally can see how all the parts of the word or parts of the sentence fit together. This type of presentation typically involves two steps: (1) parsing words into morphemes and (2) placing the structure being taught into a well-formed "schematic sentence" consisting of category labels. For example, students studying Chichewa will be taught that a typical verb has four

basic parts: an agreement prefix (abbreviated as AP in presentations), a tense/aspect prefix (abbreviated as TA), a verb root, and a final suffix. If APs are being taught, such full verbal forms as ndimapita ("I usually go") will be contrasted with mumapita ("you usually go"). I parse words to make sure the students understand how the word was put together. Part of parsing is pointing out morphophonemic changes, to make sure students know that one allomorph of a morpheme is related to others. For example, in Swahili the m- on mtoto ("child") is introduced as basically the same form as the mw- on mwana ("child, offspring"). Of course, I never talk about them as morphophonemic changes involving allomorphs. Often I parse verbs to be sure students understand WHERE the morpheme boundaries are and WHAT each morpheme contributes to the meaning of the verb. Again, however, I never talk about morphemes as such. (I will have already distributed at the beginning of the course a one-page table of all the elements in verbal morphology, in the positions in which they occur, with their co-occurrence restrictions noted.)

I argue that when students are taught generalized schemata and overt terms for grammatical parts, it is easier for them to fit new vocabulary items into their own schemata for the language. For example, once they learn to call -ma- in Chichewa a TA, as in ndimapita ("I usually go"), then when they meet a new verb form, such as ndikupita ("I am going now"), they quickly realize that -ku- must also be a TA and that the presence of a different TA accounts for the particular type of

meaning change there is.

Under ideal conditions, communication-oriented exercises follow immediately any grammatical explanations. This is what we tried to do in producing the Learning Chichewa volumes. For example, immediately after the progressive TA is introduced (as part of actual verbs, of course), there are two sets of exercises on using the progressive. The first gives a list of sentences in Chichewa which ask questions in the progressive, such as "What are you eating?" Each student in turn is expected to answer a sentence, with the use of the progressive a natural outcome. Another exercise attends to comprehension, asking one student to make a statement using the progressive TA -ku-; the next student is to state whether the statement is true or false, correcting it if it is false. A major feature of the Learning Chichewa books is lots and lots of such exercises and very few translation or fill-in-the-blanks exercises. There are exercises throughout the lesson each time a structure is introduced, and then there are exercises at the end of the lesson, attempting to make use of all the structures presented in that lesson. There is also another summary schematic outline of all the structures introduced. (See Appendix A for an example.)

Furthermore, after most verbal tense/aspect prefixes have been introduced, there is a verb review lesson, which schematically outlines all of these verb forms. There are also special general review lessons.

Students are overtly taught the names of the grammatical

category labels that appear in the schematic sentences. These labels are not especially technical; they are simply introduced to make reference to the morphemes involved easier, although some of them may also add to the student's understanding of grammatical relationships. Also, when I discuss nouns in terms of their syntactic relations, I refer to them in terms of case, so students learn "agent," "beneficiary," for example. These terms are written on the board and occur in the printed lessons when a schematic sentence is given. They are always illustrated with real sentences and real morphemes standing in the place of category names.

Note that I never expect students to state morphophonemic changes and their environments or to produce schematic sentences in terms of categorical names. I expect them to produce the sentences in the language for which the schematic sentence is a generalization. I only expect students to know the category names to the extent that they can self-correct errors when I say something such as, "Okay, when you want to mention a beneficiary, where does it go in the sentence? Alter the sentence you just said so that you include the beneficiary of the action." Knowing category names is also helpful to ensure that students understand new explanations or directions for doing exercises. For example, in the Learning Chichewa books, the following explanation is found when the verbal expression "I am not married" is introduced in one of the Communication and Culture lessons: "Sindinakwatire. 'I'm not married.' There's a new TA in this expression. The TA na indicates past action.

Like other TA's, it follows the AP directly."

The style used in presenting the grammar lesson is simple and informal. For example, here is what is stated in Learning Chichewa in the first lesson when the verb 'to be' is introduced:

As in many languages, the verb "to be" in Chichewa is characterized by its frequency of use and by its irregularity in form. In Chichewa "be" has two different basic forms: a -li form that indicates location and state, and a ndi form that indicates quality, identity, and possession. Verbs in Chichewa "agree" with the class of their noun subjects. This agreement is accomplished by attaching the agreement prefix to the stem of this verb. (This is, of course, the same agreement prefix we used with possessive stems.) To say that "the child is well" (or in any state or location) we use the verb stem -li with the appropriate agreement prefix. The agreement prefix for class 1 nouns is a- (Scotton and Orr 1981, p. 42).

Function sets priorities regarding the order of presentation of grammatical structures. For example, the verb "to be" is introduced in the very first lesson just because it is so common, and experience has taught me that students want to be able to say sentences such as "John is a student" and "the teacher is here" very early in their studies. Because the verb "to be" is fairly complex in Bantu, it is not introduced for a long time in many Bantu language texts, but I think this is a mistake. Also, what I called the "shared information demonstrative" is introduced in lesson five. In effect, it has the meaning of English the when it refers to old information, as in "did you bring the book?" It is very common in Chichewa. Many Bantu language texts make students get along with bare nouns for months, preserving the fiction that there are no

articles in Bantu, when in fact native speakers rarely use bare nouns and regularly use such demonstratives.

Another feature of this approach is paying attention to which grammatical structures "go together" and then presenting them together. For example, right after the habitual TA prefix is taught in the Chichewa book, the word for the interrogative "how" (bwanji) is taught. Along with it, the expression for manner or instrument is taught. This is because natural examples of the habitual involve interrogative "how." In turn, questions with "how" such as "how do you go to school?" will be answered with instrumentals, such as "by foot". It is easy to come up with very communicatively oriented exercises, consisting of questions such as this one, with the student supplying an answer, such as "I go by bicycle," a sentence using both the habitual TA prefix and an instrumental.

Each grammar lesson in the Learning Chichewa books is paired with a "Communication and Culture lesson" that includes a dialogue illustrating some practical aspect of the culture (such as going to the hospital), an expository passage on the subject in general, some exercises based on the dialogue and other material introduced in the lesson, and finally a list of survival vocabulary. Some new grammatical material is taught in this lesson if it fits in naturally with the material content. Usually, however, just new words and phrases are taught. Some of these phrases may well include structures not yet explained in the grammar lessons. In this case, the words and phrases are always parsed, but the sophistication of the parsing depends on

where they occur in the book (taking into account what else has been discussed). For example, in lesson 2, when Palibe kanthu is presented as part of the survival vocabulary, meaning "no problem," it is just parsed as palibe ("there isn't") and kanthu ("problem"). In a later lesson, such a verbal form as palibe would be taken apart down to its morpheme constituents. But the point is that the text tries to present all words in terms of their constituents, not as single units (unless they are, in fact, single morpheme free forms).

There are exercises, too, in the Communication and Culture lessons. For example, a lesson on giving directions includes a map of a Malawian town and exercises in the form of questions about the location of various places shown on the map. In another lesson, which is paired with a grammatical lesson in which the imperative has just been introduced, students are given directions on how to make something, such as nsima (cornmeal porridge). The exercises in this lesson ask the students to tell each other how to perform some other task, something which will require the use of imperatives.

The ideal textbook should pair up a lesson on structures with such a Culture and Communication lesson. That is, while I am arguing overt grammar instruction can aid in arriving at the goal of production, I am also arguing it should be taught side by side with units that apply the grammar and are pragmatically oriented.

I have one final point to add about my teaching of grammatical structures. This concerns teaching vocabulary

versus grammar. I organize lessons based on the premise that grammatical structure learning takes precedence over vocabulary learning in the first ten lessons. I argue that it is more important for students to know how to form a sentence than it is for them to know a list of words they may or may not be able to string together. This still means, however, that they learn quite a bit of vocabulary since it is needed to illustrate grammatical points and for the students to use when they apply the rules in the exercises. For example, in lesson one of the Learning Chichewa books, there is only one verb, the copula; the reason is that its structure is fairly complex and students have enough to learn without having to deal with many other verbs at this point. But the lesson also includes 23 nouns, the pronominal possessive stems ("mine," "yours", and so forth), and locatives for "here" and "there" because in order to use the verb "to be" naturally, a battery of such words is useful, requiring the student to learn to use the correct class prefix with "to be" called for by the noun.

The vocabulary introduced is screened to make it very functional in at least one of two ways. First, the words must stand for objects or concepts to which the students will need to refer on an everyday basis. Two of the first sentences I learned as a Swahili student were: "Shut up. We don't want your grumbling here," and "the pipe has fallen down." Both grumbling and pipes would not be part of my first lesson for a Swahili textbook. Rather, such words as "student" and "village" were used in Learning Chichewa. Also, Peace Corps Volunteers using

this text were taught the sentence, "where's the bathroom?" in an early lesson, as well as, of course, "please speak slowly; I don't speak Chichewa very well." Second, which grammatical structures are being taught in a particular lesson determines in part which types of vocabulary items will be taught. Thus, more nouns are taught in the first lessons when the Bantu noun classes are being introduced, and more verb stems are taught when students are studying new tense/aspect prefixes. So while lesson one has 23 newnouns, lesson five has only six, but it also has 12 new verb roots.

In conclusion, I argue that some overt teaching of grammar in a highly inflected language is a good idea. When there are many bound forms, students must have some idea of morphemes and morpheme boundaries so that they will know what to listen for and how to take apart and recombine sentence parts. I argue that students are not expected to know the rules they are taught in some conscious way, but rather should be expected only to apply the rules. It is useful for them to know minimal grammatical terminology, however, to make teaching easier and so that they can see the relationship between morphemes. I have also suggested the usefulness of teaching schematic patterns of well-formed sentences and then of many communication-oriented exercises utilizing the structures just studied. Also, I have argued that grammar takes priority over vocabulary, at least in the initial stages; students can always plug words into patterns they have learned to use. Finally, my overall point has been that neither grammar nor Communication and Culture lessons can

stand on their own. Grammar without application is meaningless, but so are communication lessons that teach students simply to parrot back unanalyzed sentences. If grammar lessons are paired with communication lessons, then the student has both the structural wherewithal and the motivation to produce new sentences.

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GRAMMATICAL PATTERNS LEARNED

-a- in T/A slot (for affirmative)
"We've bought food."

Ti- -a- -gul- -a chakudya Tagula chakudya.
 (ti+a=ta)

-na- in T/A slot (negative for action verbs)
"We haven't bought food."

Si- ti- -na- -gul- -e chakudya
Sitinagule chakudya.

-(li)ku- in T/A slot (negative for stative verbs)
"We aren't late."

Si- ti- -ku- -chedw- -a Sitikuchedwa.

-no "affinity"
this year" (the one we are in)

chaka chi -no chaka chino

CHAPTER 7: ON CATEGORIZING LANGUAGE COURSES: RECONCILING
LANGUAGE CHARACTERISTICS AND COURSE EXPECTATIONS
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The objective of this paper is twofold. In keeping with the aim of the conference to provide guidelines for the creation of language course materials and the evaluation of proposals for materials projects, we indicate our own preferences regarding the design and use of course materials. While it is appropriate to take a personal stance on the issues involved, we would stress at the outset that guidelines affecting the language-teaching field as a whole (or the Africanist subsection thereof) should not reflect any one viewpoint. It is important that such guidelines have the flexibility to accommodate experimentation and individual technique, without lowering the standard of the resulting materials.

Beside this statement of our views on the subject of the conference, we have a more practical objective. If the guidelines established by the conference are to be applied to proposals for new course materials, there must be some uniform method of determining how well the materials meet the guidelines. If decisions as to the funding of materials development projects are to be made, we need a means of determining whether satisfactory materials already exist. And, most important, the language teacher must be able to evaluate extant materials, so as to select the most useful - or decide to propose new ones. For these purposes we require a generally

applicable system of questions whose answers will provide a description of language course materials adequate to serve as a basis for choice.

The two objectives are closely linked. Guidelines for objective evaluation demand adequate and comparable data. A questionnaire for the description of course materials leads to nothing but the accumulation of idle data until positive and negative weighting is supplied by the potential user. In both describing and evaluating materials, we need to avoid being rigidly prescriptive, while still facilitating informed choice.

The preliminary version of this paper prepared before the conference has been modified significantly. Between completing the original draft and attending the conference, we received feedback from colleagues, compared notes again, and tested our tentative descriptive instrument on five sets of Swahili materials. This process drew our attention to a number of errors and omissions and brought us new insights which suggested modifications.

The conference produced some recommendations on guidelines which were generally acceptable to the participants. Our suggested instrument for course description (Appendix A) is intended to be compatible with these guidelines, minimally judgemental, and acceptable to the language-teaching profession. To some degree, however, it must reflect our own views despite input from others and efforts to avoid bias. We hope that with further revision from the African language-teaching community the questionnaire will become fully

compatible with the agreed-upon guidelines. To this end, we present a rationale for the content of our instrument and a statement of our own stand on each issue involved. The latter will serve both as our comments and recommendations on the issue of guidelines and as a basis for recognizing areas of bias in the construction of the questionnaire.

A. Plan of the paper

Because of the dual focus of our discussion, on the course-descriptive questionnaire and on the guidelines derived from the meeting at Michigan State University in examining the language-teaching issues, we will indicate how each is relevant to course materials description and to the guidelines. We have grouped these issues into what may be called input, output, and process considerations, using distinctions made in discussion of the guidelines. The categories are not totally satisfactory. Is a language teacher, for example, a consumer of course materials, to be classed with the student as audience and hence input? Or should the teacher, as a medium for instruction, be classed as part of process? We have chosen the former view but recognize that this and many similar assignments are essentially arbitrary.

The questionnaire itself is divided into Identification (compiler background and physical description of the materials), Goals (including performance goals, student characteristics, instructional staff and setting), Structure (the pedagogical philosophy underlying the course and layout of materials), and Utility (judgments of practicality and indication of the

credentials of the evaluator). There is no simple correspondence between these divisions and those of the guidelines. In the latter, specification of physical characteristics was largely omitted because little consensus could be reached on this issue. The questions under Goals cover both performance goals (output) and audience (input). Those under Structure may be assigned for the most part to process, but Utility includes elements of both input and process. Despite this lack of match between the structure of our questionnaire and the organization of the guidelines, it is possible to present topics for discussion very roughly in the order in which relevant questions appear in our instrument. Input here covers the body of research and analysis on which the course rests, the planning of the course materials, their match with the target language, and the audience, both learner and teacher. Output involves the discussion of performance goals. Process covers course structure, integration of materials, timing, evaluation of student progress, and the accessibility and flexibility of course materials.

No matter how the issues are grouped or subdivided, it is clear that few are independent. Theoretical orientation (linguistic, pedagogical, or ethnographic) will affect the analysis, the structure of the course, and the performance goals. The audience will determine the choice of target language, performance goals, and several aspects of course structure. The latter will also be determined by performance goals and will in turn determine the degree to which goals can

be attained. Performance goals and language choice together will determine timing. This list could be expanded. It is difficult to order the issues logically; we will try to proceed from the largest issues of theory to the details of structure.

In the discussion that follows, we distinguish those issues we feel it is possible and desirable to prescribe from those for which variation is appropriate. To give a trivial example, it is proper to say that materials in book form should be sturdily bound; it would not be proper for guidelines to specify blue binding with yellow lettering. In some cases, there will be disagreement with our judgments in this area, as in others.

One definition is needed here. In referring to our proposed instrument for describing language course materials, we may use the terms "questionnaire" and "instrument" nearly interchangeably; the choice of term is unimportant. But throughout the discussion the term 'course' will appear, and it requires definition if it is not to be ambiguous. In the strictest sense, a course is a complex involving teacher, student, books, recordings, physical environment, time span, target language, the backgrounds and attitudes of teacher and student, and the interactions of all these. But it would be difficult, if not impossible, to describe or lay down guidelines for this process.

"Course" as used herein refers to a set of instructional materials designed or available for use as part of a language course in the former sense. Where it is necessary to be more

specific, we may substitute the term "course materials." We do not, however, limit the term to textbooks or even to printed materials. Films, tapes, games, and dictionaries are equally valid components of a "course" in our present sense.

To a large extent, description and evaluation of course materials is as well description and evaluation of the institutional course in which they are used. Each set of materials is generally designed with a type of teacher, a group of students, and a specific pattern of instruction in mind, and it will generally be clear in what settings course materials will work best. But often materials can be used in a variety of ways, and it is not our present aim to evaluate teachers and their teaching habits, nor learners and their learning styles. We seek merely to describe sets of course materials in such a way that potential users can determine whether any extant course is suitable for their specific purposes and needs.

A. Input Considerations

B. The need for a basis in linguistic/cultural analysis

In our view, the course must be based on an adequate body of linguistic description. This should include phonology (phonetics and morphophonology), morphology/syntax (inflection, productive derivation, and clause/sentence structure), and discourse (spontaneous narrative and conversation). A comparable cultural analysis is equally important. This should include as a minimum social structure, formalized behavior/ritual, daily life-style, and general worldview. Where appropriate, dialectal differences and distinctive

traditional/rural and Westernized/urban cultural patterns should be surveyed.

The linguistic and cultural analyses should be so integrated as to provide an analysis of language use in social interaction. For best results, at least one compiler should combine a background in both linguistic and cultural analysis with practical ability in the language and a history of participation in the culture. Courses based on brief surveys of the language or culture, or studies primarily aimed at contributing to one or another theoretical approach, or research focused on one or another specific aspect of language or culture will normally be inadequate in several respects. Courses compiled by a team of, for example, linguist/informant, when the compilers' skills are complementary but do not overlap, will likewise often be inaccurate. We cannot, however, legislate against courses based on partial or team analyses, since with resources (human and other) presently available, such courses will sometimes be the only option. We can only warn that they are less than satisfactory.

B. The importance of planning

The course should not just happen; it should be planned. Each decision, from choice of dialect through choice of format, should be made after careful consideration of alternatives. Compilation of a "course" by, for example, creating drills and notes to match texts randomly produced, elicited from a speaker chosen because of accessibility, is unsatisfactory. Assembling a "course" from components produced separately and never

integrated is likewise unacceptable. This does not, of course, mean that all "course" components must be bound or boxed together. In many cases separation of components into easily portable units is desirable, although adequate cross-referencing is essential. There should also be no objection to working existing materials into the structure of a course, so long as the result is a unified whole.

Given the presentations and discussions at the conference, there is a danger that some may see so-called "natural" methods as allowing randomly assembled material. If we properly understand the approaches in question, nothing could be farther from the fact. It is clear that the selection and ordering of materials to be put before the student must be made with great care, whatever method is applied, in order to maximize success.

B. Language specificity in course materials design

Different languages are not equivalent, except in the broad and educationally irrelevant sense that all languages must serve the same communicative functions for their speakers. For every pair of target language and student language there is a level of structural difference, a degree of cultural alienness, a specific "natural order of acquisition," and an ideal mode of presentation peculiar to that combination. Planning must be based accordingly on the language to be taught. We may eliminate one variable by assuming the students to have proficiency in English. It is appropriate to look for evidence that course compilers have taken language-specific factors into

consideration. Courses produced according to a standardized format must justify the appropriateness of their formula to the target language.

It follows that the time required to reach a given level of proficiency will vary with the language. The idea is not new, but to our surprise it was met with some skepticism at the conference. The general acceptance of specifying attainment of a given level on the ACTFL scale as the goal of a year of study of whatever language is shocking; it must for some language be so high that the student cannot be sure of attaining it, and for some other so low as to imply poor teaching or a slow pace. We must accept that one year's study of one language may give a level equivalent to perhaps three years' work with another.

B. Audience: The students and their needs

The course should be designed with a given audience in mind. Many factors are involved, such as students' language background, intended use of the target language, and degree of uniformity of the student body. We assume that designing courses for narrowly specified groups is generally inefficient; given the limited resources available, the course should be aimed at the widest reasonable audience. Given the realities of African language teaching in this country, however, for present purposes we can be somewhat more specific.

In most cases, the assumed students will be professionals (not necessarily academic); they will be adult, proficient first- or second-language speakers of English, usually with a North American cultural background, and they need to use the

language in its normal context. The students should not be assumed to have much linguistic sophistication or interest in grammatical structure, although most will have studied previously some European language. Many will have had no significant cross-cultural experience. Students requiring the same language cannot be expected to share a given professional focus. While on the whole such predictions can be made about the student population, this is not an area for prescription. In some cases, as with courses for Peace Corps personnel or missionaries, there may be justification for designing with a specialized population in mind. And while in most cases we would aim to meet the great need for usable teaching materials aimed at oral proficiency, we recognize the utility of, for example, pure structure courses.

B. Qualification of instructional staff

The type of instructor envisaged will determine the nature of the course. Important factors here include student/instructor ratio, qualifications of instructors(s), and role of instructors(s). It is appropriate to design courses, where possible, for a variety of alternative instructional settings, since a course designed for a highly specific type of presentation may have limited use. However, some alternative patterns may be mutually incompatible. We may again make some restrictions.

We feel that the student-teacher ratio assumed for the course should not exceed 20:1 in most cases. Self-instruction is also undesirable. In both cases, the major problem is that

feedback to the student is limited. In self-instruction, or individual work with a speaker/informant, there is a further complication in that pressure on the student is maximized. Teachers should be trained professionals, ideally with both awareness of theoretical considerations and competence in the twin areas of language and culture. They should have much the same qualifications as we expect of course compilers - not unreasonably since teacher creation or supplementation of course materials is often essential. Complementary teams (such as linguist and first-language speaker) are not to be encouraged. Furthermore, the instructor should be actively involved in the learning process. The teacher as supervisor or consultant to the student is not effective, given the need for careful structuring of the language-learning experience.

Nor can the computer or tape-recorder substitute for the instructor. The first can be a useful aid, if grammar is to be taught or reading and writing emphasized. The recorder may be essential for modeling normal speech if the staff does not include a first-language speaker of the target language. Both machines are handy for drill (written and oral, respectively) and can save much tedious classroom work.

Once again, these are not areas for legislation, but only for recommendation. There will be circumstances in which classes too large or too small are necessary, or in which self-instruction, teamteaching, or mechanical teaching are the only options available. We can only try to avoid these.

A. Output Considerations

B. Performance goals and their place in the guidelines

The largest single segment of the proposed instrument is devoted to performance goals, which we consider the most important aspect of course evaluation. Why, then, was so little on such a central issue as output written into the guidelines? Partly because those participating in the meeting could not reach consensus in most areas, partly because, as stated above, the goals must vary with the language taught and the time at hand, as well as with the audience.

It was possible to agree that our objective should be to enable the average student to survive comfortably in the field, without predicting how long this might take for a given language. It was also agreed that the importance of reading and writing skills would vary with the language. On all other points no specification was made.

B. Problems with the FSI-ACTFL performance scales

We feel it is unfortunate that what little was stated in the area of performance goals assumed acceptance of the ACTFL guidelines, themselves a revised version of the FSI scale. The FSI-ACTFL model for proficiency testing is interesting, fairly well tested, and certainly adequate as an interim measure. But, although it is perhaps presumptuous to suggest its replacement, there are reasons for so doing.

First, although the FSI descriptors may have been based on non-European languages as well as those of Western Europe, the ACTFL recension has been applied as yet primarily to the

"commonly taught" languages. To the extent that some of the functions described depend on control of grammar, there is no guarantee that the scales can be applied to radically different languages. European bias is clear in such specifications as "word endings are often omitted." Students in a Bantu language, for instance, will rarely omit endings but will often choose incorrect prefixes.

Second, the ACTFL scales do not directly address interaction, although that is the basis for the testing model. Interaction is divided between speaking and listening. It is possible for a student to be better or worse at interactive skills than at either input or output of language. As a result, the ACTFL definitions for speaking and listening overlap and potentially give a distorted picture of student skills.

A third point, related to the second, is that the ACTFL system presumes a linear progression through the levels, yet the level definitions mix function, phonology, lexicon, and several levels of grammar from inflectional morphology to discourse. An individual may show as "Intermediate-High" in function, "Novice-Mid" in phonology, and "Intermediate-Low" in syntax and inflection. We have known such students. This means the ACTFL scale is inadequate as a diagnostic tool for the teacher, and leaves it the proper rating for some students in doubt.

- B. An alternative model of performance
- C. Organization of the alternative scale

We have spent considerable time analyzing the objectives of language courses and seeking ways to specify them. We have

arrived at a performance chart (included as Appendix B) which we feel provides a reasonably complete and concise means of distinguishing levels of performance. The same framework that can be used to specify the profile of a given student's performance may serve to specify the levels aimed at by a language course, and this chart therefore is the basis for the section of the instrument devoted to performance expectations. The definitions given in the version of the chart included here are unsatisfactory. They have been distorted to make it possible to present the entire chart on a single page to give an overview. A version with more adequate definitions will be published elsewhere.

In designing the course, the compiler(s) should aim for specific levels of competence expected of students successfully completing the course. In specifying these levels, we distinguish first communicative media and modes. We consider the following media: aural/oral, reading/writing, nonverbal, and social/cultural. The modes we recognize are abstract, input, output, and interactive.

The media themselves require little comment or definition; the modes, however, need some interpretation. The abstract mode involves theoretical knowledge or understanding of structures or behaviors; the ability to parse or describe. The input mode involves perception and comprehension of speech or behavior. The output mode involves the learner's behavior and production of speech. Finally, the interactive mode relates to participation in conversation and social activity; it involves

not merely listening and speaking but also reacting and participating.

In each mode we may distinguish several levels of performance defined by degree of facility on the part of the learner; we have chosen to limit the levels we specify to three (represented in the arrangement of the chart by a number, as in A1, A2, A3). Each of the media may likewise be subdivided by the type or degree of complexity of the unit considered. We have again chosen to consider only three types of unit in each medium, represented in the chart by a letter, as A1, B1, C1.

C. Levels and units of linguistic/cultural performance

The units within the media deserve some discussion. In the two more purely linguistic media, aural/oral and reading/writing, we base the three primary units on the complexity of the construction: the word/phrase, the clause/sentence, and the paragraph/discourse levels. In most languages these are readily definable units. They are commonly recognized as primary linguistic units in a hierarchic relationship, and seem ideal as benchmarks in evaluating language acquisition.

The internal complexity of the three levels of unit differs considerably. While the amount of structure to be mastered at the word/phrase level is minimal, the next level includes a wide range of clause and sentence types, as well as a variety of interclause relationships. At the discourse level the complexity is proportionately greater.

It would be possible to break each unit down into an array of sublevels arranged by the intrinsic difficulty of each structure, but it would be difficult if not impossible to evaluate student performance consistently on such a basis. Furthermore, since such sublevels would be dependent on the structure of the target language, it would be impossible to construct a generally applicable instrument. It is relatively easy with any target language to determine, for example, the proportion of correctly formed, student-composed sentences, and to apply this as a criterion independent of specific language structure. This leaves us with a nonlinear scale, since mastering the complexities of discourse structure will take much longer than mastering the word, but this is inevitable. It is well known that language acquisition is cumulative and nonlinear.

In the social/cultural medium, we can recognize a similar hierarchy of complexity. Corresponding roughly to the word/phrase level is social ritual - greeting sequences, polite expressions, formalized exchanges. Although in some cases these are linguistically complex, they function in cultural interaction as simple basic units. The next level is that of the maintenance transaction; exchanges are focused, for example, on acquiring food or shelter, on finding one's way or obtaining assistance, on public or work-related issues. These are generally not formulaic and in some cases may have an internal structure with several distinct components. Thus, in the "scene" of purchasing goods,¹ we may have a greeting

sequence, description and evaluation of the merchandise, a semistylized barter sequence, and closing formulas. But while transactions of this type involve the learner in interaction with the target culture, they do not force participation. The third level, comparable to discourse, is that of cultural participation. There are scenes requiring the participant to be more than a customer or a salesman, an employee or employer. To be host or guest; to participate in a wedding, funeral, or other ceremony; to work side by side with culture bearers in an activity not shared by the learner's culture; or to engage in local pastimes; these require a level of involvement well beyond the simple transaction. Scenes may involve sequences of simple transactions, but even when a single transaction is involved, it is typically less familiar - and often less "safe" - than those of the lower level.

In the nonverbal medium, the parallel fails. We have again assumed three types of unit, but in this case without a hierarchic relationship. This is in part because our understanding of the structure of nonverbal communication is still limited. There is evidence of hierarchic structure in at least some nonverbal areas, such as intonation and pause placement, but more work is needed. We have separated nonverbal communication into intonation (here taken to include pitch, volume, phrasing, voice register, speech rate, and the like), expression/posture (visual cues other than gesture, including proxemics), and gesture (taken to include all nonfacial movement, not merely manual). Although these divisions are not

parallel to those in the other media, the order given does seem to be one of increasing complexity or difficulty for the student.

C. Possible expansions of the Scale

It would be possible - and desirable - to add a zero level, such as is found in the ACTFL guidelines. We have omitted this level from the present chart, since its definitions would be wholly negative. In each of the media, a fourth and higher level is a possible addition. In aural/oral and reading/writing, this fourth level is that of verbal art in the broad sense. We include not only the various genres classed as literature, but also speeches, jokes, argument and (in reading/writing) the art of correspondence. At this level in the social/cultural medium we might add adopting the behavior patterns, values, and beliefs of the target culture as part of one's normal life-style (we would not include the enthusiastic tourist's aping of exotic costumes and customs).

While attainment of this fourth level might be an ultimate goal for some learners, it is not very realistic for a language course of one or two years, carried out far from the normal setting of the culture. Indeed, in any culture there are culture bearers whose language use rarely extends to literary production, or to more than minimal literary appreciation, and others whose skills in manipulating their own culture are in many ways inadequate. We have therefore omitted these levels as well from the performance chart. This is not to say, however, that courses should not, when possible, at least expose the

student to verbal art and target life-style. Such exposure, and the acquisition of at least abstract knowledge, may form an important basis for eventual operation at a higher level.

B. Setting the goals

Factors of ability and personality affect the actual performance levels attained by individuals in each area. Despite this unpredictable element, it should be possible to identify average levels expected by course compilers in each media/mode combination. We would wish to see a balance, in expectations and therefore in teaching, between input and output, and a strong emphasis on the interactive mode. The abstract mode may be deemphasized, but there seems general agreement that it should not be eliminated. While "grammar for grammar's sake" is not a viable goal in most African language teaching, we would maintain that consciously accessible knowledge about language structure and behavior (although not necessarily in formal or technical terms) may help at least some learners go beyond a simple automatic response level. Furthermore, our experience suggests that, at least for the African language-teaching field, learners who prefer or welcome exposition of "grammar" outnumber those who are disturbed by its open discussion.

We would also stress careful balancing of expected levels of performance in the four media. The balance will vary with the language. For example, the balance between aural/oral and reading/writing in dead languages such as Coptic or Ge'ez would deemphasize aural/oral work and stress reading/writing. In such

primarily unwritten languages as Turkana or Bolanci, reading/writing should be minimized, if incorporated at all. In Swahili or Amharic, living languages with prolific literatures, we would wish to see a more even emphasis, although aural/oral might predominate. Given the poor facilities available for cultural interaction in the average classroom setting, we may expect that the levels reached in the social/cultural medium will, save for the abstract mode, normally be lower than those attained in the aural/oral. Here and in the nonverbal, it may be necessary to reset the three levels to reflect lower expectations.

In these areas, we can again only recommend. Circumstances and the needs of the audience will in particular cases make patterns seen as undesirable in the abstract appropriate.

A. Process Considerations

B. Selecting a pattern of instruction: Balancing learning activities

To achieve the preferred levels of performance, the course should balance components of comprehension and production. We feel that the proportion of rote work to creative language use should be kept low; aural/oral work during the course should be kept high. In the category of rote work we include memorization of dialogues, vocabulary, or paradigms, and drills involving the automatic recall of such material in unmodified or minimally modified form.

Another important structural variable is the ratio of

prescribed work, such as translations, drills, or readings, to spontaneous, interactive language use. We feel that, to foster interactive communicative skills, the course should involve fewer drills than interaction activities such as dialogues, interviewing, topical conversation, participation in narrative as narrator and audience, and so forth. While drills should be included, they should be varied rather than uniform, with open rather than closed responses, and they should be related to interaction-oriented activities.

In a course, material may be presented inductively or deductively. It was clear at the conference that educational philosophies differ widely on the extent to which induction is seen as necessary or even appropriate. Our own position on this issue is moderate. We believe that overt grammatical explanation should be minimized in the classroom. It should be presented highly informally, without requiring students to operate more than the simplest metalanguage. But we also feel that in languages structurally very different from English there will be areas in which consciously available patterns will help the student. Some patterns will not be fully internalized until quite late but may be important to the user. Furthermore, some students, especially of the group of potential researchers who constitute the bulk of our clientele, will attempt conscious grammatical analysis and without guidance may reach misleading conclusions. Finally, in our experience, many students, need the psychic prop of "rules" to feel confident in the language class. Mutatis mutandis, all these remarks apply to induction

of cultural as well as grammatical information.² The final factor we would recognize in course structure is that of sequence and staging. Again, there is much philosophical disagreement on the desired nature and extent of sequencing. Some courses will be sequenced in terms of linguistic structure, ordering verbal tense before clause type, for example. Others will use behavioral content sequencing and treat greetings before barter dialogues. Some course compilers will prefer a relatively unsequenced, highly modular course. Our preference is for careful sequencing in terms of both linguistic structure and behavioral content, progressing from the simplest and the most frequently used to the rarer and more complex. The sequence should, wherever possible, be so structured that constructions or behaviors presented later incorporate those already presented. Since this will result in a different order of presentation for nearly every target language, it is difficult to see how a universally effective sequence could exist.

It is important to stress that care in sequencing is required no matter what theory is espoused. Even for those approaches minimizing attention to linguistic form and maximizing functional content, sequencing of both form and content is necessary. In Krashen's specification of "comprehensible input" the key word is "comprehensible." With average students and a widely different target language and culture, sequence is an important factor in ensuring comprehensibility.

At the conference, much was made of the need to avoid "the type of sequence a linguist would impose." Admittedly, there have been and still are courses which serve as horrible examples of ordering in terms of some theory-based view of relationships between constructions or feature-counting complexity. If a 'linguist' is a form-focused theoretician with little practical command of the target language and less teaching experience, then this is a valid restriction. But ordering by linguistic structure can be helpful if it is based on understanding of the language and pedagogic experience, if difficulty is seen not as a matter of size of unit but as based also on predictability and degree of interference with the students' first language, and if one recognizes the need to compromise with functional ordering and to introduce the most frequent constructions without regard to their complexity.

B. Selecting a pattern of instruction:

Integrating language and culture

The content of a course is not only grammar and vocabulary, but also intonation, proxemics, social ritual, sociolinguistics, literature, style, expression, gesture, and life-style - or at least it has components of each of these. It is generally agreed that cultural content as well as linguistic structure should be stressed, but there is less agreement on what this entails. The student, in the end, should be able to switch codes in language and behavior with some freedom. While it may not be possible, or even desirable, for the student to operate within the culture as a culture-bearer, it should be

possible to manipulate the culture as an equal, rather than as an arrogant alien or social ignoramus. This implies that behavioral patterns must be fully integrated into, and practiced along with, linguistic patterns. Culture should not be presented as a series of museum pieces, while language practice reinforces English behavior clothed in the vocabulary of the target language.

The need for integration is seen also in the purely language or purely cultural components. In a carefully planned course, grammatical structures, lexical items, and behaviors should not be presented until the student is prepared to comprehend them.³ Once introduced, they must be reinforced in subsequent units to facilitate their acquisition. Words, structures, and behaviors used once and never taken up again are a sign of poor workmanship. The rationale for this type of integration is simply the need for effective use of time. No matter, how important a construction or word may be to the student, no matter how ready and receptive the student may be, little will be internalized after a single exposure. It will be necessary to present the material with some frequency and explore it in a variety of settings.

Finally, the course is not merely a textbook. A modern language course is textbook, vocabulary, tape recordings, illustrations, slides, films, videotapes, classroom instruction, student work outside the classroom, testing, and perhaps more. We might even conceive of a course which included a manual for the instructor but no conventional textbook at all. If we

accept that design and sequencing are desirable features of a course, it follows that it is desirable for each of the physical components of the course to be integrated with the others, to form a coherent whole. Audiovisuals should be for use, not decoration or comic relief; vocabularies should include lexicon used in the course, presented in a format and orthography compatible with other materials; reference grammars should similarly relate to structures practiced; readings or oral texts should be matched to the level of the student and form a basis for drills and conversation; external work should be tied to classroom practice; obviously, testing must focus on the specific goals of the course. Each lack of fit will negatively affect the value of the course as a teaching device.

We cannot, in our instrument, assess directly the operation of the classroom, any more than we can test the students who complete the course for proficiency. In general, however, materials may be expected to provide specification of intended instructional method as well as expected outcomes. From this we can form an estimate.

B. The time factor in language instruction

Acquisition of new linguistic and cultural habits takes time; structures must be practiced and assimilated. We therefore feel that courses should not normally be designed for fewer than 150-200 contact hours. The course of one to three months proposed by Hazel Carter should be seen as the structure-focused pre-use portion of a longer course. There should be significant work outside the classroom, in the

language laboratory or elsewhere. The ratio of aural/oral to reading/writing and other media in outside work should approximate the ratio in class work, although outside the class we may expect more focus on the abstract and less on the interactive mode.

Another temporal issue is intensity. The 150-200 hours suggested should be spread over a period of not less than eight weeks and not more than forty. If fewer than eight weeks, the student has too little time to practice and assimilate between topics. If more than forty weeks, there is too great an opportunity to forget a new structure before it is reinforced, too much room for boredom to set in, too much chance for erroneous exploitation and fossilization. Courses of between eight and forty weeks have been demonstrated to be practicable. There are complementary advantages and disadvantages to the two formats. Courses of intermediate intensity might be preferable to the extremes, but within the framework of our academic calendars they are rarely available.

The third temporal issue is pace, here defined as what number of new behaviors are taught in the recommended 200 hours. The pace should keep the student challenged but not overwhelmed. New structures should not be introduced before the student has practiced those already taught, but new structures should not be postponed until the student has totally mastered all old material. In the first case, some structures will not be learned; in the second, the student will waste time and become bored. In keeping with the goal of integration, the

proportion of, for example, nominal to verbal constructions, grammar to vocabulary, and linguistic to cultural skills should remain fairly constant throughout the course and at all levels of competence.

It follows that course compilers should not expect nor strive for, identical performance results from all courses in all languages. The level of performance to be expected from 150-200 hours of study, at a reasonable level of intensity and acceptable pace, will vary with the language, instructional technique, and abilities of the individual student. Increasing pace to give, let us say, students of Kikuyu mastery of the same percentage of the total verbal system expected of Swahili students will have only negative results. The levels of complexity of the two systems are significantly different, and one will simply lose a greater proportion of students. The decision to specify a uniform performance goal for the "basic" course, we reiterate, is wrong. As a corollary, it will be impossible to define the content of intermediate or advanced courses without knowing the language and the expectations of the beginning 150-200 hours.

B. Evaluating learner progress

The course should provide suggestions for evaluating the students who take it. Such evaluation should be constant, to check the effectiveness of the course and of student learning styles at each stage, and to identify individual problems as they arise. At all levels, the form of student evaluation should be consistent with the course's performance goals. It should be

adequate to provide a profile of student abilities which can be used as a diagnostic tool, identifying specific areas of difficulty. Our performance chart was designed with this in mind.

When individual problems are identified, the course should provide the means of correcting them. If problems frequently arise among a minority of students, supplementary materials are needed, such as special drills for those who have unusual trouble distinguishing vowel qualities in certain positions. Of course, those areas which consistently pose problems for the majority of English speakers should be built into the structure of the course.

B. Accessibility of the materials

The three principal factors are: cost, portability, and clarity. The materials which the student must purchase should be affordable; the same applies to those which must be acquired by the student's institution, although the price level defined as "affordable" will vary. Such materials as reference grammar and vocabulary, at least, should be designed for minimum weight and size and maximum durability, to allow their convenient use in the field. Even materials primarily intended for classroom use should not constitute too bulky or perishable a package. Finally, the materials should allow ready access to their contents. Printed materials should have a clearly legible typeface; layout should enhance legibility. Illustrations and audiovisuals should be clearly reproduced, recordings audible and if possible of studio quality. Indices, cross references,

and systems of pagination and paragraph numbering should be well thought out and should facilitate use. Space for student annotations, supplements, and commentary should be provided.

Clarity also applies to the style of presentation and content. Texts, whether written or oral, should be chosen for maximum intelligibility to the student at the level at which they are to be used. Instructions guiding the student through the course must be clearly stated. Any grammatical or cultural commentary, whether in a reference section or in the body of the course, should be put in language clear to the student, not in the jargon of the specialist.

Clearly, there must be compromises between completeness and bulk, legibility and cost, and so forth. But careful design can maximize the overall accessibility - and hence effectiveness - of the course. Therefore, despite the need for compromise, and unlike the issues of course structure, integration, timing, and evaluation, we believe is an area for which a guideline is appropriate. The guidelines cannot, indeed, specify exact format but should insist on the effort to maximize total accessibility.

B. Flexibility of course materials

The course ideally should be flexible in three ways. First, it may be necessary to use the materials in a variety of instructional settings or in courses of various lengths. If this can be done, a saving will result. Design of separate courses for all length/setting combinations would hardly be cost-effective.

A second form of flexibility will focus on the student. Although the set of professional Africa-visitors postulated as our primary clientele is more uniform than the total set of North American language students, there will be different needs and different cognitive styles represented. Ideally, the course should provide materials to satisfy some of the predictable needs and a varied format to try to accommodate cognitive style. The supplementary materials for special populations mentioned above constitute part of this attempt.

It is also important to remember that a course will not normally be used exclusively by a single teacher or instructional team. We must allow for the differing backgrounds and pedagogical philosophies of the instructors. The course should provide enough material, especially texts or dialogues and drills, to supply the needs of the teacher who lacks the language background to compile individual materials. Full instructions in the appropriate use of the materials are also necessary. At the same time, it is important to indicate areas in which teacher-made materials are appropriate. For teachers whose preferred approach is different, one must allow for possible resequencing, expansion, or modification of the materials. The compilers should indicate, as far as possible, areas in which modification is likely to reduce the effectiveness of the course.

Again, all instructions should be in terms intelligible to the anticipated user. Explanations couched in a restricted dialect of linguistic jargon will not reach a teacher with an

ethnologic background, and vice versa. Neither will help the semitrained first-language teachers who are still numerous in the field. If the pan-African (or regional or language-specific) teacher resource compilation, as recommended in Magdalena Hauner's presentation and in discussion at the conference, were to exist, it would be very necessary for the course in a specific language to specify what portions would be useful and how they should be used.

A. Conclusions

B. The need for explicit statement in course design and evaluation

Preliminary attempts to apply the instrument have revealed a few problems in the questionnaire itself, one of which is the need for more explicit specification of the information sought. In the revised version given here we have incorporated some such specification without which different users of the questionnaire would provide drastically different results. Perhaps equally important is the problem of evaluating courses which do not include explicit statements of goals, sources, planned use, and so forth. We strongly urge compilers to provide clear statements of what they are doing as well as how and why they are doing it. The problem of evaluating courses is complex enough even when such information is given, and, of course, not all compiler statements should be taken on faith. But for some extant materials, one cannot, from the information given, even guess at strengths and weaknesses until after using them.

B. The need for planning in course design

If there is one point which needs to be stressed more than any other, it is the need for consistent planning. The course materials must be designed for a goal and an audience, both of which determine the type of evaluation of performance, which determines classroom practice, all of which determine sequence and form of presentation. Courses can be viewed as effective or ineffective only in terms of their goals, the match between goal and design, and the extent to which the finished course realizes what was planned.

B. Adequacy of the questionnaire

Our instrument, as it stands, seems adequate to handle most modern American-designed course materials for African languages. It asks most of the questions that we and our colleagues ask of course materials, and it should be relatively easy to interpret. One could even envisage most segments being interpreted by computer processing, using a set of weighting factors for each question supplied by the potential user; the result would be a numerical score or graphed profile rating.

There are several known areas of inadequacy, however. It is not designed to handle phrase-book materials of the "Swahili for the Safari" type, courses in the linguistic structure of a language, or courses designed for secondary level or below. These omissions are intentional; these sorts of "course material" have features special to each which could not readily be integrated into the present questionnaire.

Also, by intention, it is not designed to handle

adequately course materials compiled for other than English speakers. The design considerations for a maximally effective Swahili course for Russian speakers would be different from those for the English-proficient, enough so to require different questions, different emphases. To include these would introduce too many variables. While the questionnaire might be used to describe a Francophone course, for example, and evaluate its utility for a U.S. audience, we would expect the description to be less valid.

A third inadequacy lies in the structure of the performance chart. The anomalous nature of the non-verbal medium is disturbing, especially when one realizes that few if any students will attain in the classroom levels comparable to those reached in the other media. This is an area in which we are considering further modification.

Finally, there is the length and complexity of the present instrument. Using it to describe a set of course materials involves considerable time and effort. The time spent filling in answers to the questions is not all; the reviewer must examine the materials closely to determine their features. In the case of languages for which several courses exist, this may pose a problem. It seems unlikely that there is a simple solution, however. Reducing the questionnaire would reduce the value of the description. A possible goal for the future might be the production of a programmed version which would shorten the time needed.

Further debate and testing of the guidelines and

descriptive instrument may lead to improvements and reveal the most important flaws. For the present, we feel that the questionnaire presented here should serve a useful purpose.

Notes

1. "Scene" is used here in the technical sense to refer to a culture-specific unit of interaction involving patterned activity and associated verbal behavior. Thus, meeting and greeting constitute a scene, applying for a license is a scene, a story-telling session is a scene. It must be distinguished from the role-playing "situation" of proficiency testing, which involves the artificial placement of the person being tested in an imitation of a naturally occurring "scene."

2. It may be useful to distinguish several patterns of presentation: (a) technical description in English; (b) simplified explanation in English; (c) use of shared contrasts and paradigms in English and target language; (d) technical description in the target language; (e) simplified explanation in the target language; (f) use of contrasts and paradigms in the target language; and (g) focusing attention on the material in a demonstration. We would reject (a) and (d) but feel there is a place for the remaining patterns at one point or another in the course.

3. This is not with any thought of reducing student error. Rather, it is in keeping with the sequencing principle discussed in this chapter. Too early introduction of new material may demoralize the student, who wants to understand what is going on, and will take time and attention away from material that is within the student's reach.

APPENDIX A

A PROPOSED PERFORMANCE-ORIENTED INSTRUMENT FOR CATEGORIZING LANGUAGE COURSE MATERIALS

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To the user of the instrument:

This instrument is intended to provide a thorough, nonevaluative description of the subject course. Only weighting of individual items and sections, supplied by potential users of the course, will make it evaluative. It is divided into four major sections, focusing respectively on the Identification, Goals, Structure, and Use of the course. There is some overlap between sections, since some issues involve more than one of these major areas. Thus questions on audiovisuals are divided between Identification and Structure.

In some areas it may be impossible to answer because the information requested is not supplied by the course. In such cases, simply insert NS, "not specific". In other cases, a question may not be appropriate given the structure of the subject course. If this is the case, fill in NA, "not applicable." If unable to decide on an appropriate answer, write in UD, "undecided." Several of the questions ask for an estimate. It is understood that these are only approximations and that there is an irreducible subjective element in any such instrument.

We ask that you carefully consider your answers, to provide the fairest possible description of the course. To provide the fullest possible description, please be sure to answer all questions. If you feel that supplementary information is important to the description of the course, please provide it on separate sheets.

I. IDENTIFICATION OF THE COURSE:

- A.1. target language of course _
2. where spoken _
3. status or type of use (for example, national language, religious language, lingua franca, used in education to third level, and so forth _
4. dialect selected _

I. (continued)

5. reasons for choice of dialect_
6. linguistic and sociolinguistic relationship to other dialects_
7. size of population linguistically accessible through this dialect_
8. major cultural subgroupings within this population_
9. cultural traditions represented in the course_
10. reasons for choice of culture_
11. relationships to other cultures in the area_

B.1. author(s)_

2. institutional affiliations of author(s)_
3. qualifications of author(s):
 - a. linguistic analysis (years)_
 - b. ethnography (years)_
 - c. language pedagogy (years)_
 - d. proficiency levels in target language (or years of use)_
 - e. proficiency levels in target culture (or years of operation of culture)_
 - f. preferred methodology for teaching target language_
 - g. experience in teaching target language (years)_

C.1. title of course_

2. date of compilation_
3. date of last revision_
4. where published_
5. where available_
6. a. number of components_
b. type of components_
7. for each component list size, weight, number of pages, number of slides, number of tapes, number of films, as appropriate_
8. cost of each component_
9. components the learner will use during the course_
10. components the learner must purchase_
11. components useful to the learner on finishing the course_
12. components suitable for use in the field_

D.1. is the typeface of printed components easily legible_

2. are special symbols needed and used_
3. are subsections of the text, such as drills and grammatical comment, distinguished by layout and typography_
4. is there a single sequence for pagination or paragraph numbering_
5. a. is there an index_
b. if so, how detailed and complete is it_
6. is there adequate space for user notes and additions_

- E.1. in audiovisual components, are recordings clear_
 2. are the subjects of illustrations, slides, and films easily seen and recognizable_
 3. are subsections of recorded materials separated by leaders and indexed_
 4. are visual images indexed_
 5. can audiovisual materials be used with generally available equipment_
- F.1. what supplementary materials is the learner expected to use (outside readings, dictionaries, and so forth)_
 2. what supplementary materials will the teacher need_
 3. how generally available are such supplementary materials_
 4. a. what course components or supplementary materials can be replaced with equivalents_
 - b. what possible substitutes exist_
 5. what course components or supplementary materials can safely be eliminated_

II. GOALS OF THE COURSE

i. Performance:

- A. Medium: What proportion (approximate percentage) of... Percent
- 1.a. the course material is devoted to the description of the target language or culture _
 - b. student course time will be devoted to such description _
 - 2.a. the course material focuses on activities involving language use or cultural behavior _
 - b. student course time will be devoted to such activities _
 - 3.a. course material is devoted to concerns other than target language or culture (for example metalanguage, English structure, poetic theory, and so forth) _
 - b. student course time will be devoted to such concerns _
 - 4.a. student course time will be spent in the classroom _
 - b. class time will be devoted to Aural/Oral activities _
 - c. class time will be devoted to Reading/Writing activities _
 - d. class time will be devoted to Nonverbal Communication activities _
 - e. class time will be devoted to activities involving Social/Cultural behavior _

II. Goals of the Course

i. Performance, continued

5. a. student course time will be spent outside the classroom —
b. homework will be devoted to Aural/Oral activities —
c. homework will be devoted to Reading/Writing activities —
d. homework will be devoted to activities involving Nonverbal Communication —
e. homework will be devoted to activities involving Social/Cultural behavior —
6.a. descriptive material focuses on Aural/Oral aspects of the language —
b. descriptive material focuses on Reading/Writing —
c. descriptive material focuses on Nonverbal Communication —
d. descriptive material focuses on Social/Cultural behavior —
B. Modes: What proportion (approximate percentage) of...
1. course activity is devoted to Input (listening, observing, reading) —
2. course activity is devoted to Output (speaking, performing, writing) —
3. course activity is devoted to Interaction (conversation, debate) —
4. course activity focuses on Abstract knowledge (parsing, cultural description, rules) —
C. In each of the following categories, indicate the highest level of performance expected of the average learner who has successfully completed the course. If you have experience using the course, indicate the highest level attained by the average student; otherwise, mark the expectations of the course compilers. If the compilers do not clearly indicate the levels expected, estimate levels, based on materials in use by the students at the end of the course. Indicate levels for each division of each category by inserting a number from 0 to 3 under the letter assigned each division. For definition of the levels, consult the Performance Chart.

1. Aural/Oral Medium: A B C
a. Abstract (knowledge of language) —
b. Input (comprehension of language) —
c. Output (production of language) —
d. Interaction (conversation in language) —
2. Reading/Writing:
a. Abstract (knowledge of orthographic conventions) —
b. Input (reading) ! —
c. Output (writing) —

3. Nonverbal Communication:

- a. Abstract (awareness of nonverbal behavior) -
- b. Input (interpreting nonverbal cues) -
- c. Output (production of nonverbal signs) -
- d. Interaction (responding to nonverbal cues) -

4. Social/Cultural Behavior:

- a. Abstract knowledge of societal rules -
- b. Input (interpreting behavior in terms of target culture) -
- c. Output (behaving in accordance with societal rules) -
- d. Interaction (participation in society) -

D. Note which of the following types of interaction are described, modeled, or practiced in the course. Each is a "scene," a culture-specific complex of linguistic and other behaviors constituting a functional unit. Simple transactions are defined as minimal, often highly formalized, units of behavior. Maintenance scenes are generally more complex, less formulaic, and generally essential for physical survival in the culture. Sensitive behaviors are yet more complex and tend to involve more personal issues and risktaking. If a scene will be practiced by students in activities over two or more weeks or units, indicate that it is "practiced." If it is at least modeled in textual materials but is not practiced or is only practiced during one week's activity, indicate that it is "modeled." If it is not modeled, but a thorough description is given, indicate that it is "described." If the scene is important in the target culture but is not practiced, modeled, or thoroughly described, indicate that it is "absent." If it is of no importance in the culture and absent from the course, indicate that it is "not applicable." If important scenes of the level under consideration are omitted, indicate what has been neglected. If other important scenes of the level under consideration are not listed here but are described, modeled or practiced in the course, add them.

1. Simple Transactions:

- a. Greetings and leavetaking_
- b. requests and thanks_
- c. health-related courtesy_
- d. courtesies related to special occasions_
- e. asking and giving names, and inquiries about family_
- f. inquiries about occupation and place of work_
- g. asking meanings of words and names of objects_
- h. discussing food and meal-time courtesies_
- i. asking and giving directions_
- j. stating goals and reasons_

2. Basic Maintenance Scenes:

- a. obtaining food and supplies_
- b. obtaining shelter_

2. Basic Maintenance Scenes (continued)
 - c. communications_
 - d. transportation_
 - e. paying fees and taxes_
 - f. obtaining permits_
 - g. seeking employment and hiring workers_
 - h. reporting theft or injury or obtaining medical aid_
 - i. games and entertainment_
 - j. asking for interpretations and explanations of language and culture_

3. More Sensitive Behaviors:
 - a. giving and following direction in work situations_
 - b. evaluating work_
 - c. work-related grievances_
 - d. emergency assistance_
 - e. seeking protection_
 - f. interacting with police_
 - g. interacting with military or government officials_
 - h. social interaction and hospitality_
 - i. participating in festivals and special occasions_
 - j. religion_

E. Indicate which of the following roles are practiced (in the sense of D above) by the student in course activity. If other important roles are practiced, list them.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| 1. stranger_ | 11. employer_ |
| 2. friend_ | 12. employee_ |
| 3. guest_ | 13. partner_ |
| 4. host_ | 14. adviser_ |
| 5. tourist_ | 15. teacher_ |
| 6. researcher_ | 16. student_ |
| 7. informant/information officer_ | 17. consultant (such as lawyer, clergy)_ |
| 8. official/administrator_ | 18. parent_ |
| 9. customer or client_ | 19. child_ |
| 10. vendor_ | 20. language learner_ |

11. Audience:

- A.1. does the course assume a common interest or background for students_
2. does the typical learner expect to use the language in context_
3. is the typical learner an academic or in a graduate degree program_
4. what is the educational level of the average learner_
5. a. does the course expect previous experience with foreign languages_
 - b. if yes, in what specific language_
 - c. to what level (proficiency or years)_
6. a. is background in linguistics expected_
 - b. if yes, in what tradition_
 - c. to what level (in years)_

II.ii. Audience (continued)

7. a. is previous operation in another culture expected_
b. if yes, in what specific culture_
c. for what length of time or to what proficiency level_
8. a. is background in ethnography expected of the student_
b. if yes, in what tradition_
c. to what level (in years)_
9. how many students (throughout the United States) will need the language in a given year_

B.1.a. what is the expected length of the course (in classroom hours)_
b. over how many weeks_
c. how much time is the student expected to work outside the classroom_
2.a. what setting(s) would be expected_
b. what technical facilities (recorders, projectors, and so forth are needed_
3. size(s) of class_
4. number of instructors--if self-instruction, write zero_
5. qualifications of instructors:
a. linguistic analysis (years)_
b. ethnography (years)_
c. language pedagogy (years)_
d. proficiency levels in target language (or years of use)_
e. proficiency levels in target culture (or years of operation in culture)_
f. preferred methodology for teaching target language_
g. experience in teaching target language (years)_
6. role of instructor(s) in approximate percentage of time:
a. language resource or informant_
b. linguistic consultant or supervisor_
c. drill leader_
d. partner in interaction_
e. examiner_

III. STRUCTURE OF THE COURSE:

- i. Philosophy:
A. Rote work/Language use:
1.a. are students to memorize dialogues or other connected passages_
b. what is the ratio of memorized to self-constructed dialogue_
2.a. are constructions to be memorized or drilled as paradigms_
b. what is the ratio of paradigm practice to construction of meaningful sentences_
3.a. is the student advised to memorize or drill lexical entries_
b. what is the ratio of vocabulary memorized or drilled to the total lexicon of the course_

III i. Philosophy: (continued)

3. c. how may lexical items is the student expected to acquire_
- B. Prescribed language/Spontaneous language:
 1. a. are students asked to translate sentences or longer texts_
 - b. what is the ratio of translation to free composition and direct comprehension_
 2. a. are there drills that leave the student's response open_
 - b. what is the ratio of closed-response to open-response drills_
 3. a. is the student encouraged to go beyond the structures and vocabulary explicitly taught in the course_
 - b. what is the ratio of controlled learning to external language experience_

C. Induction/Deduction:

1. a. is grammar explained or described in the body of the course (ignore accompanying reference materials)_
- b. what is the ratio of explanation to use in the course proper_
2. a. is target vocabulary glossed in English in the course (exclusive of vocabularies)_
- b. what is the proportion of the vocabulary glossed in English in the course proper_
3. a. are target behaviors presented or explained in English_
- b. what proportion of included cultural material is present in English_

D. Sequencing:

1. is there an apparent sequence of presentation of the language_
2. if YES, is the sequence based on assumed complexity for the English-speaking student_
3. if YES, are constructions of different type interspersed (rather than grouping all verbal-system phenomena, for example)_
4. if NO, are all grammatical points explained or drilled as they appear (rather than focusing only on selected points)_
5. is there an apparent sequence in the presentation of cultural behaviors and topics of texts and activities_
6. if YES, is the sequence based on assumed complexity for the North American learner_
7. if the answer to 5. is YES, are clusters of related behaviors introduced together_
8. if the answer to 5. is NO, are all cultural behaviors explained or practiced as soon as they are mentioned_

E. Style:

1. does the course strive to be maximally nonaversive to students_
2. does the course strive to foster internalization as well as habituation_
3. does the presentation take student cognitive style into account_

III.1. (continued)

4. a. are provisions made for alternative cognitive style_
- b. does the course provide instruction in cognitive strategies_
5. is the student asked to learn a metalanguage_
6. indicate whether presentation is predominantly in English, target language, or an interlanguage (reduced target language)_
7. does the course assume a prespeech/preuse phase_
8. at what point (in hours) will the student be expected to begin to use the language and culture in the classroom_

ii. Physical Characteristics:

- A.1. what audiovisual materials are there_
2. a. are transcriptions of recordings and captions or descriptions of visual materials provided_
- b. if so, do transcripts and captions match the audiovisuals_
3. are these materials integrated with the course work rather than merely appended_
4. are such materials used throughout the course_
5. are they used as the basis for student interactive activities_
- B.1. what linguistic reference materials are included (such as vocabularies, reference grammar)_
2. do these cover at least the material taught in the course_
3. are they consistent (in orthography, style and fact) with practice in the course_
4. are statements and lexical entries clear to the non-linguist_
5. a. are these materials separate from the body of the course_
- b. if so, are students asked to refer to them during the course_
- C.1. what cultural reference materials (descriptions of social structure, behavior complexes, and so forth) are included_
2. do these cover at least the cultural patterns presented in the course_
3. are they consistent (in style and fact) with statements and practice in the course_
4. are descriptions and explanations clear to the nonspecialist_
5. a. are cultural references separate from the body of the course_
- b. if so, are students asked to refer to them during the course_

III.ii. (continued):

- D.1. does the course include a student "textbook" _
 - 2. does it include a student workbook _
 - 3. does it include a teacher manual _
 - 4. does it include an activity resource book _
 - 5. does it include a collection of written or recorded texts for student use _
- E.1. a. how many separate topics are introduced in a typical "unit" _
 - b. what is the time expected to be devoted to the typical "unit" _
 - 2. a. is the "unit" divided into recognizable subsections _
 - b. is there a regular pattern to such segmentation _
 - 3. a. does each "unit" form an integrated whole _
 - b. are "units" modular or independent of one another, rather than sequential or overlapping _

IV. UTILITY OF THE COURSE:

- A.1. does the course show evidence of resting on a thorough linguistic analysis in:
 - a. phonology _
 - b. inflectional morphology _
 - c. phrase structure and sentence-level syntax _
 - d. discourse structure _
 - e. derivation and semantics _
 - 2. what is the theoretical orientation of this analysis _
 - 3. does the course show evidence of resting on a thorough cultural analysis in:
 - a. nonverbal communication _
 - b. social structure _
 - c. mores _
 - d. life-style _
 - e. traditions _
 - 4. what is the theoretical orientation of this analysis _
 - 5. are linguistic and cultural statements consistent and accurate _
- B.1. does the course give evidence of careful planning _
 - 2. was the choice of dialect and subculture appropriate _
 - 3. are structure and content appropriate to the intended audience _
 - 4. is the pace appropriate to the intended audience, the level of performance anticipated, and the specific target language _
 - 5. do the components form an integrated whole rather than a random assemblage of materials _
 - 6. has the course been successfully tested _

IV. UTILITY OF THE COURSE (continued):

- C.1. can the course be used in a variety of settings_
- 2. a. is too much left to the initiative of the instructor_
b. is too little freedom given to the instructor_
c. can course segments be omitted, resequenced, or used alone_
d. are the materials supplied adequate if not supplemented by the instructor_
- 3. does the course stress creativity in language production_
- 4. are structures and behaviors consistently reinforced outside the unit in which they are introduced_
- 5. does the course specify the form and frequency of student evaluation during the course_
- 6. are supplementary materials provided to deal with problems which frequently affect only a minority of learners_
- D.1. on completion of the course, will the average learner be adequately prepared for essential operations in the field_
2. a. if the answer to 1. is NO, what further training is needed_
b. do materials for such further training exist_
c. if so, are they compatible with the course described_
3. a. is this a beginning course_
b. if not, do materials adequate to prepare learners to enter the course exist_
c. if so, are they compatible with the course described_
E.1. what supplementary materials exist (beyond those listed in I.F.)_
2. how generally available are these_
3. how compatible with the subject course are they_
4. do the compilers refer to them_
5. to what extent do they duplicate material contained in the course_
F.1. what alternative courses exist_
2. where would you rank this course among them_
3. a. would you choose to work with this course for its intended purpose_
b. why or why not_
c. for what other purposes would you consider this course suitable_
4. in what areas would this course most benefit from revision_
5. in what areas would this course be suitable as a model for future courses_
6. in what areas is this questionnaire inadequate to describe the course_

IV. UTILITY OF THE COURSE (continued):

- G.1. name(s) of person(s) describing the course_
- 2. institutional affiliation(s)_
- 3. qualifications_
 - a. linguistic analysis (years)_
 - b. ethnography (years)_
 - c. language pedagogy (years)_
 - d. proficiency levels in target language (or years of use)_
 - e. proficiency levels in target culture (or years of operation in culture)_
 - f. preferred methodology for teaching target language_
 - g. experience in teaching target language (years)_

APPENDIX B
PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CHART

AURAL/ORAL

A1: Often fails to recognize word boundaries	B1: Often fails to identify clause constituents	C1: Often fails to identify major discourse boundaries
A2: Often fails to identify affixes	B2: Often fails to distinguish subordinate clauses	C2: Often fails to specify intersentential relationships
A3: Correctly identifies affixes and derivational patterns	B3: Correctly describes formation of principal clause types	C3: Correctly specifies function of most discourse connectives

Input

A1: Regularly mishears words	B1: Mishears one word in ten	C1: Mishears one sentence out of ten
A2: Regularly misunderstands most words	B2: Misunderstands one word in ten	C2: Misunderstands one sentence out of ten
A3: Correctly hears and understands most words	B3: Comprehends most sentences fully	C3: Comprehends most of discourse

Output

A1: Regularly mispronounces individual words	B1: Mispronounces one or two words per sentence	C1: Regularly strings sentences together without links
A2: Regularly misuses words	B2: Makes regular errors in clause structure	C2: Frequently fails to link sentences
A3: Uses and pronounces most words correctly	B3: Most sentences are correctly formed	C3: Speaks with appropriate discourse structure

Interactive

A1: Often fails to answer greeting or conversational lead correctly	B1: Often fails to answer questions appropriately	C1: Frequently silent or hesitant in conversation
A2: Usually gives formulaic response or repeats words of stimulus	B2: Rarely asks questions or volunteers information	C2: Rarely initiates conversations
A3: Questions unfamiliar usage, finds alternatives	B3: Full response to questions, actively seeks information	C3: Participates fully in conversation

APPENDIX B, CONTINUED
READING/WRITING

Abstract

A1: Basic difference from English orthography incorrectly specified

A2: Function of some diacritics or diagraphs not correctly specified

A3: Functions of all orthographic symbols correctly specified

B1: Principles of word division not correctly specified

B2: Functions of some punctuation marks incorrectly specified

B3: Word division and punctuation correctly specified

C1: Principles of paragraphing not correctly specified

C2: Specialized formats of letters, and so forth incorrectly specified

C3: Specifies correctly forms of most written communication

Input

A1: Regularly misreads words

A2: Regularly fails to recognize words

A3: Reads and understands most words correctly

B1: Misreads one word in ten

B2: Misunderstands one written word in ten

B3: Comprehends most written sentences

C1: Misreads one statement in ten

C2: Misunderstands one written sentence in ten

C3: Comprehends most written material

Output

A1: Regularly writes words incorrectly

A2: Misuses words regularly in writing

A3: Writes and uses most words correctly

B1: Makes one or two orthographic errors per sentence

B2: Makes regular errors in sentence structure

B3: Most sentences are correctly written

C1: Miswrites one sentence in ten

C2: Regularly fails to link sentences correctly

C3: Appropriate discourse structure maintained in writing

APPENDIX B, CONTINUED
NONVERBAL

Abstract

A1: Non-English intonation patterns not correctly specified

A2: Often mistates emotive value of intonation

A3: Describes correctly forms and function of most intonation

B1: Non-English expressions and postures not correctly specified

B2: Implication of expressions and postures often misstated

B3: Correctly defines most posture and expression in functional terms

C1: Fails to describe correctly non-English gestures

C2: Often fails to specify function of gestures

C3: Correctly describes form and function of most gestures

Input

A1: Rarely notes intonational features

A2: Regularly misinterprets emotive intonation

A3: Correctly hears and interprets most intonation

B1: Consistently interprets expressions in English terms

B2: Frequently misinterprets expression and posture

B3: Correctly interprets most expression and posture information

C1: Regularly fails to observe gestures

C2: Frequently misinterprets gestures

C3: Interprets most gestures correctly

Output

A1: Generally uses English intonation

A2: Often fails to reproduce target intonation

A3: Generally uses intonation pattern appropriate to context

B1: English in facial and positional behavior

B2: Often produces inappropriate expressions or postures

B3: Matches most expression and posture to context

C1: Generally uses English gestures

C2: Frequently uses inappropriate gestures

C3: Selects appropriate gesture in most situations

Interactive

A1: Rarely reacts to intonational cues if not shared by English

A2: Often fails to respond correctly to intonation

A3: Usually fits intonation to relationship and reacts appropriately

B1: Rarely reacts to facial expressions if not shared by English

B2: Often responds appropriately to expressions/posture

B3: Generally reacts appropriately to face and body cues

C1: Rarely responds to gestural cues

C2: Frequently reacts inappropriately to gesture

C3: Generally reacts appropriately to and with gestures

APPENDIX B, CONTINUED

SOCIAL/CULTURAL

Abstract

A1: Fails to specify conditions determining greetings

B1: Often fails to specify settings and rules of survival scenes

C1: Fails to describe most non-English customs

A2: Often fails to specify contexts for courteous exchanges

B2: Often fails to specify structure of more complex scenes

C2: Often fails to state social function of customs

A3: Correctly describes form and context of most social formulas

B3: Correctly describes most maintenance scene structure

C3: Correctly describes most customs and ceremonies

Input

A1: Frequently mishears greetings

B1: Needs assistance in basic survival

C1: Generally fails to note differences in customs

A2: Frequently misinterprets polite formulas

B2: Understands essentials of simple transactions

C2: Often fails to recognize customary behavior

A3: Correctly interprets most expressions of rudeness or politeness

B3: Understands content of most maintenance scenes

C3: Understands content of most customs and ceremonies

Output

A1: Often fails to use correct greeting

B1: Needs assistance in basic survival

C1: Fails to practice most customs

A2: Often fails to use appropriate courtesy

B2: Expresses primary needs and requests

C2: Fails to perform correctly in more complex rituals

A3: Manipulates social formulas appropriately in most situations

B3: Effectively expresses most needs and desires

C3: Conforms to target customs where appropriate

Interactive

A1: Often hesitates in greeting interchanges

B1: Needs assistance in basic survival

C1: Fails to respond to customary behavior appropriately

A2: Frequently responds inappropriately to politeness

B2: Carries on simple transactions successfully

C2: Often errs in response in more complex ritual

A3: In most situations selects appropriate level of formality

B3: Interacts freely and flexibly in most transactions

C3: Participates fully in ritual where appropriate

CHAPTER 8: RECORDED AFRICAN LANGUAGE MATERIALS ASSESSMENT AT
THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-MADISON
Hazel Carter, University of Wisconsin-Madison

The project was undertaken in order to show lacunae and unsatisfactory areas in the holdings of the Department of African Languages and Literature, as well as to point out which materials were appropriate for which purposes. Given that the number of faculty teaching African languages is minute in proportion to the total number of languages taught, there was an emphasis on materials which could be used for self-instruction, or which did not need presence of an instructor for use. Only materials with a recorded component were examined; these included not merely published courses and course-books in prepublication form but also word-lists, drills, radio broadcasts, talks, lectures and stories, and faculty field recordings, not all of which, of course, were intended as teaching materials in the first instance.

In all, about 1,200 hours of recordings were covered, in the following languages: Afrikaans, Aharic, Arabic, Bambara, Bemba, Berber (Tamazight), Bini, Efik, Ewe, Fula, Ga, Ganda, Gbaya, Hausa, Igbo, Kikuyu, Kituba, Kongo, Lingala, Mende, Meru, More, Nyanja, Ruundi, Sango, Shona, Sotho, Swahili, Twi, Urhobo, Wolof, Xhosa, and !Xu.

Sources of assessment were (1) faculty members and teaching assistants familiar with the languages and/or materials

Note: This paper is a revision of the one presented at the MSU Conference

to be evaluated; (2) students participating in the Teaching of African Languages seminar; and (3) two project workers, S. Amanor Dseagu and the present writer. Faculty were asked to complete a questionnaire (see appendix) and make any further observations they wished. Students worked through about ten hours of materials in a language they did not know and wrote a (guided) report from a beginner's point of view. In one case a speaker of the language went through a course and commented on its accuracy. The two project workers examined the remainder of the materials held and included some assessed by students, to permit comparison and allow for different approaches. One project worker report is appended.

The rationale for the faculty questionnaire should be fairly evident and not require much comment. (The original questionnaire was far longer and more detailed, and it quickly became clear that faculty did not have time to answer it; a shorter, simplified version was accordingly made.) It was recognized that the needs of language learners vary considerably and that materials suitable for, say, a linguistics major interested in the structure of a language might not be helpful to an anthropology student wishing to use the language principally as a means of communication; nevertheless, the initial stages in adult language learning are probably not too disparate, and the questions included one on the level for which the faculty member felt the material was appropriate (not necessarily that for which the authors had intended it). It should be added that we were greatly assisted by the very

detailed catalogue/study guide of the Laboratories for Recorded Instruction (LRI) at UW-M; a sample of this is also appended. (Contents pages were also copied; not appended.)

With few exceptions, student criticism was severe, although mainly in the area of presentation rather than content. Often the articulation rate of the speaker/s is far too high for beginners to follow; vocabulary is presented erratically, too much at once, or without consideration for usefulness; grammatical information is confusing; tapes do not correspond to accompanying written material; sometimes items are presented without explanation or translation; drills are frequently condemned as boring. A particular area of criticism was--perhaps surprisingly--lack of help in learning and practicing vocabulary. Students were apparently far more irritated at not being able to produce words than at their inability to manipulate structures. It seems clear that many of these materials were prepared by people without adequate training (or even common sense) and were insufficiently sensitive to the possible needs of the "target population."

Faculty responses stressed either qualified approval of or considerable dissatisfaction with available published materials, and they expressed the wish to have more time to devote to the preparation of such themselves. Those who had produced teaching materials felt a need to revise and update them periodically but could not spare the time to do so, especially as this kind of activity was held 'not to count as publication' in the view of university committees concerned with

tenure and promotion. It is, in fact, gratifying to note that materials produced by our own faculty in the main received higher student response scores than those from other sources, and in the interim report the major recommendation was that faculty be encouraged to do more of such work and be given sabbatical leave and publication support in order to do so. The fact remains, however, that the writing of course materials does not enjoy high prestige among the academic community in general, and promotion committees in particular, being considered "hackwork", unscholarly, and furthermore difficult to publish. Yet, it is almost too obvious to state that those best equipped to write good materials are those with teaching experience, who also have the opportunity to validate them.

It was at one time suggested that the African Studies Program at UW-M should publish the report as an occasional paper. However, in the opinion of the main project worker, there would have been too many difficulties attached, mostly because of the severity of the criticisms and the fact that anonymity had been guaranteed to participants. Another reason is that, where very little material exists for a particular language, anything is better than nothing; perhaps the MSU conference will help to improve this situation.

APPENDIX

Sample Faculty Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-MADISON : AFRICAN LANGUAGE MATERIALS

Language: Swahili

Course title, author/s, publisher, place, date: TEACH
YOURSELF SWAHILI, D Perrott, English Universities Press,
London 1951 (latest ed. 1966)

Tape details (number, length, speed, total time): 2 reels, SH
1.007, 3.75 ips, c.1h

Accompanying text (where copies available -- LRI, Memorial
Library, etc.) Memorial Library and LRI

Level: check beginner x intermediate advanced

Suitability for self-instruction with/without further material
(grammar, dictionary) Yes; textbook is a grammar, but non-
Bantuist approach

Brief outline of course (approach, number of lessons) 48
lessons, appendix, tables, answer keys, glossary,
supplementary exercise.

Vocabulary: one way/both ways? Both no. of entries 1500

General evaluation:

Good for review and/or self-instruction; not suitable
for taught Swahili courses. Approach emphasizes
literacy-over-fluency. Limited number of text
exercises are on tape; there are no pauses before
responses.

Assessed by

Date

See also TICC study guide following

The University of Wisconsin-Madison
Language Laboratories

TICC #: SH 1.007.00
Page 1

LANGUAGE: Swahili

LEVEL: Beginning

TEXT: D. V. Perrott, TEACH YOURSELF SWAHILI ("The Teach
fnvoQaYK =nnxQUR ?eyYish Universities Press, Ltd., 102 Newgate
St., London)

ED: 1st

NO. OF REELS: 2

ACQUISITION DATE:
28 September 1970

SPEED: 3.75 ips

TRACK: Half Track,
Side A Only

////////////////////////////////////

NOTES: (1) COPYRIGHT (For student take-home copies): Check the
latest edition of the TAPE LIBRARY CATALOG for
copyright status, since this status may change from
time to time.

- (2) COVERS MATERIAL FROM: Introduction and Lesson 1:
Sound guide to Swahili and sentence structure;
exercises in Swahili from the lessons, and selected
exercises in Swahili from the 'Key to Exercises' at
the end of the text. All readings are at normal
speed, without pauses for repetition.
- (3) These tapes are BANDED between various sections with
white leader tape so the teacher can easily fast
forward to the desired lesson. These white bands on
the tape are indicated in this guide by a single
line of dashes, -----.
- (4) In this guide, each new REEL of tape in the set is
indicated by a double line of asterisks:

- (5) PRONUNCIATION/DIALECT: Native speakers. The tapes
were recorded at Michigan State University. (Tapes
EP41 and EP42)

- (6) TAPE CONTENTS SUMMARY:

Reel .01 - Introduction and Lesson 1
Reel .02 - Swahili exercises from Lessons
and from Key to exercises.

LANGUAGE: Swahili

TEXT: TEACH YOURSELF SWAHILI

ACQUISITION DATE:
28 September 1970

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	Text
	Page Lesson Description of Tape Contents
Reel .01	The first part of the reel is based on the Introduction to the book, and provides students with a sound guide to the pronunciation of Swahili. Examples which illustrate the Swahili vowels and consonant sounds are taken from the Swahili-English vocabulary section at the end of the book (pp. 170-181). The explanatory material from the book is read, with examples; there are no pauses for repetition. The student should follow in the text.

Intro. ALPHABET: Vowels

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 | 'a'--with examples from the vocabulary section. |
| 1 | 'e'--with examples from the vocabulary section. |
| 1 | 'i'--with examples from the vocabulary section. |
| 1 | 'o'--with examples from the vocabulary section. |
| 1 | 'u'--with examples from the vocabulary section. |
| 1 | 'u' and 'yu' |
| 2 | 'ai' |
| 2 | 'ei', 'ai', 'au' |
| 2 | double vowels--'aa', 'uu', etc. |

Band -----

Intro. ALPHABET: Consonants

- | | |
|---|---|
| 2 | 's' or 'k' (c-sound); 'k' or 'kw' (q-sound); 'ks' (x-sound) |
| 2 | 'f', 'g', 's' |
| 3 | 's' in the middle of a word |
| 3 | Two consonants together--'ch', 'sh', 'th', 'dh' |
| 3 | 'l' and 'r' |
| 3 | 'kh' and 'gh' |

Band -----

- | | |
|---|--|
| 3 | Intro. 'm' and 'n' ('m', 'mb', 'n' with another vowel, 'ng') |
|---|--|

Band -----

LANGUAGE: SWAHILI

TEXT: TEACH YOURSELF SWAHILI

ACQUISITION DATE:
28 September 1970

////////////////////////////////////

	Text Page	Lesson	Description of Tape Contents
Reel .01	6	1	THE SWAHILI SENTENCE
	6		Stem with prefix (the prefix determines the class)
	6-7		Same prefix on nouns, and adjectives describing them.
			--examples of nouns with prefixes
			--examples of numbers with prefixes
	7		Sample sentences with same prefixes added to the noun, adjective, and number.
	7	1	Verbs: the same prefix is used, with another syllable to show tense or time. Verb given with 3 tense prefixes.
	8		Example of a sentence without a noun.
	8		Example of a question, showing no change in word order in changing from declarative to interrogative.

REEL .02 "The exercises in Swahili, which progressively illustrate the grammar rulings throughout the book are recorded, so that the student can listen for correct accent and intonation, while following the text in the book." Text and tape readings are in Swahili; the readings are at normal speed, without pauses.

	9	2	Exercise #1: Nouns. The KI VI Class
	17	5	Exercise #4: (second part). The N Class
	26	8	Exercise #7: PA and KU
	38	12	Exercise #11: The Verb
	40	13	Exercise #12: The Object Prefix
Band	45	15	Exercise #14: Negative Tenses
	50	16	Exercise #15: The Infinitive, Imperative, Subjunctive
	52	17	Exercise #16: The KI and KA Tenses
	55	18	Exercise #17: The NGE and NGALI Tenses
	58	19	Exercise #18: Impersonal Forms
Band	72	23	Exercise #22: To Be
	76	24	Exercise #23: To Be (Cont.)
	82	26	Exercise #25: (second part). To Have
	90	28	Exercise #27: Numbers
Band			

LANGUAGE: Swahili

ACQUISITION DATE:
28 September 1970

TEXT: TEACH YOURSELF SWAHILI

////////////////////////////////////

Text	Page	Lesson	Description of Tape Contents
REEL .02	98	31	Exercise #30: The Formation of Adverbs
	101	32	Exercise #31: Prepositions
	120	38	Exercise #37: Conjunctions
	130	41	Exercise #40: Auxiliary Verbs

Band

REEL .02 In the following chapters, instead of an exercise on the lesson itself, short passages from various present-day sources are given." Follow the text as you listen. Text and tape readings are in Swahili; no pauses for repetition.

139	44	Here are the thoughts of two Africans on Swahili, taken from a correspondence in the Swahili paper "Maendeleo": <u>"Kiswahili Kiondoshwe"</u>
-----	----	---

142	45	From an article by the Kenya Information Office on the choosing of representatives on an African Council: <u>"Uchaguzi Wa Wajumbe"</u>
-----	----	--

Band

144	46	From the Swahili monthly paper "Mambo Leo": <u>"Kutengenezwa na Kupigwa Chapa Gazeti"</u>
-----	----	---

147	47	From the Union Swahili version of the Bible: <u>"Mtini"</u>
-----	----	---

150	48	From a letter in "Maendeleo": <u>"Malezi Mabaya"</u>
-----	----	--

Band

The following exercises are selections from the "Key to Exercises" section at the back of the book. Text and tape readings are in Swahili. Follow the text as you listen. The readings are at normal speed, without pauses.

62	20	Exercise #19. Who and Which (relatives)
64	21	Exercise #20. More about the Relative
68	22	Exercise #21. The Passive
69	25	Exercise #24. To Be in a Place
82	26	Exercise #25. To Have

Band

The University of Wisconsin-Madison
Language Laboratories

TICC #: SH 1.007.00
Page 5

LANGUAGE: Swahili

ACQUISITION DATE:
28 September 1970

TEXT: TEACH YOURSELF SWAHILI

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Text

Page Lesson

Description of Tape Contents

////////////////////////////////////

Reel .02

87	27	Exercise #26. Adjectives
92	29	Exercise #28. Time
95	30	Exercise #29. Adverbs
105	33	Exercise #32. KWA and NA
109	34	Exercise #33. The Prepositional form of the Verb

Sample Project Worker Report

The University of Wisconsin - Madison
Laboratories for Recorded Instruction

TICC #: KI 1.001
Page 1

DEPT: African Languages
TEXT: KIRUNDI BASIC COURSE by Raymond Setukuru et al. (Foreign
Service Institute)

ED: 1st NO. OF REELS: 15 LEVEL: Beginning

SPEED: 3.75 ips HALF TRACK, Side A Only

Text lxi, 526 pp.

Total playing time: c. 7hrs. 25 mins.

This is one of the more successful FSI courses. Despite the authors' modesty in stating that it is not intended as a self-instructional manual, and that the aims are limited, the course can be used without an instructor. The approach is sophisticated and detailed enough for university students, especially if used in conjunction with A. E. Meeussen's ESSAI DE GRAMMAIRE RUNDI, on which the grammatical analysis is based.

An introductory synopsis of 40 pp. covers the morphology of the verb and noun, the principle of concord (with tables of class concordial elements), with exercises. This familiarizes the student with grammatical terms (and might therefore be somewhat above the head of the less academic student). The phonology section deals with vowels (including length and coalescence) and consonants, with diagrams illustrating phonetic and phonemic relationships (again rather advanced for the untrained). Tone is discussed in Unit 1; there are 30 units in all. Some instructions in Units 1 and 2 are in French; it is doubtful whether this is very useful.

My criticisms were all of details, e.g. parts missing from contour display of tones, non-correspondence of tone-marking with contour displays in a few cases. Similarly (as stated on recording), the spoken examples do not always match written ones. The vocabulary of c. 725 words, Kirundi-English, is more than that for several other FSI courses. My own feeling is that 1,000 is about right for an elementary course, but given the limited aims here, the total is reasonable. (Compare Nyanja 315, Kituba 1,125.)

One considerable point in favor of the course is that the initial speed of utterance is slow enough for beginners to hear clearly, picking up as the course proceeds.

Sample Project Worker Report, continued

The book follows the standard FSI procedure of dialogues for learning, repeated "for fluency", with notes on the grammar following the dialogues, and various substitution and transformation drills; e.g., of tonal distinctions, and by the end of the course the student is expected to be able to mark vowel length and tone himself. A useful feature is a discussion of treatment of French loans.

One (male) voice is used throughout.

The University of Wisconsin-Madison
Laboratories for Recorded Instruction

TICC #: KI 1.001
Page 1

DEPT: African Languages

ACCESSION DATE: 10 AUG 77

TEXT: KIRUNDI BASIC COURSE by Raymond Setukuru et al. (Foreign
Service Institute)

ED: 1st

NO. OF REELS: 15

LEVEL: Beginning

SPEED: 3.75 ips

HALF TRACK, Side A Only

////////////////////////////////////

NOTES:

- (1) COPYRIGHT for student take-home copies: see the LRI Catalog.
- (2) TAPE SOURCE: received from the UW Department of African Languages.
- (3) TONES (40 hertz for 3 sec.) are recorded between units; BANDS of white leader tape are spliced in at the tones; these tone/bands are shown by a double asterisk followed by a line of dashes, **-----.
- REELS are separated by a double row of asterisks, *****

- (4) RUNNING TIME is given for each unit.
- (5) LANGUAGE FAMILY: Kirundi is the principal language of Burundi; it shares a high degree of mutual intelligibility with Kinyarwanda, the language of Rwanda.
- (6) TAPE CONTENT: Units 1-29; dialogs, vocabulary, exercises, and practice conversations, as found in each unit.

TAPE CONTENT SUMMARY:

Reel .01 Units 1,2
Reel .02 Units 3,4
Reel .03 Unit 5
Reel .04 Unit 6
Reel .05 Unit 7
Reel .06 Units 8, 9
Reel .07 Units 10, 11
Reel .08 Units 12, 13
Reel .09 Units 14, 15
Reel .10 Units 16, 17
Reel .11 Units 18, 19
Reel .12 Units 20, 21, 22
Reel .13 Units 23, 24
Reel .14 Units 25, 26
Reel .15 Units 27, 28, 29
178

	Text Page	Tape Content	Time
REEL .01		UNIT 1	25:10
Band 1	5	Dialog: Greetings and Getting Acquainted	
	10	Examples for "pitch" & "tone"	
	16	Examples for "pitch" in yes-no questions	
	16	Examples for "pitch" in declarative intonation	
	20	Personal pronouns	
	24	Example of Substitution Drill	
	27	Vocabulary supplement 1: Names for members of various ethnic groups	
	30	Vocabulary supplement 2: Places where people work	
	31	Vocabulary supplement 3: Objects	

Band 2		UNIT 2	24:00
	33	Dialog: Looking for Work	
	43	Exercises 1-3	
	50	Practice conversations 1 & 2	

REEL .02		UNIT 3	49:30
Band 1	52	Dialogs: Where Do People Live & Work?	
	63	Vocabulary: Place names	
	65	Exercises 1-7	

Band 2		Unit 4	23:45
	75	Dialogs: Getting Help in the Language	
	81	Exercises 1-9	
	85	Words for conversation practices	

REEL .03		UNIT 5	36.25
	86	Dialogs: Arranging for Help in Language Study	
	92	Exercises 1-9	
	99	Practice conversations	

REEL .04		UNIT 6	47:55
	101	Dialogs: Comparing Notes About Language Study	
	108	Exercises 1-10	
	116	Practice conversations	

////////////////////////////////////			
	Text		
	Page	Tape Content	Time
////////////////////////////////////			
REEL .05		UNIT 7	41:50
	118	Dialogs: Family Relationships	
	120	Vocabulary: Names of some occupations	
	122	Supplementary vocabulary: Kinship terms	
	126	Exercises 1-8	
	132	Practice conversations	

REEL .06		UNIT 8	37:00
Band 1	135	Basic Dialog: Family Relationships	
	136	Supplementary vocabulary: numbers 1-20	
	141	Exercises 1-11	
	150	Practice conversations	

Band 2		UNIT 9	29:50
	152	Basic Dialog: More Family Relationships	
	154	Vocabulary supplement: People about whom routine inquiry may be made	
	155	Exercises 1-6	
	160	Practice conversations	

REEL .07		UNIT 10	35:05
Band 1	162	Review Exercises 1-14	
	172	Practice conversations	

Band 2		UNIT 11	30:00
	175	Basic Dialog: Getting Street Directions	
	179	Exercises 1-7	
	184	Practice conversations	

REEL .08		UNIT 12	30:50
Band 1	186	Basic Dialog: More Street Directions	
	189	Supplementary Dialogs	
	193	Exercises 102, 4-8	

Band 2		UNIT 13	32:40
	200	Basic Dialog: Planning a Short Trip	
	205	Exercises 1-11	
	213	Practice conversations	

////////////////////////////////////			
	Text		
	Page	Tape Content	Time
////////////////////////////////////			
REEL .09		UNIT 14	24:30
Band 1	215	Basic Dialog: Buying Food	
	217	Supplementary vocabulary: Foodstuffs	
	220	Exercises 1-7	
	228	Narrative versions of the dialogs, Units 103	
	230	Practice conversations	

Band 2		UNIT 15	25:30
	232	Basic Dialog: Buying Clothing	
	234	Supplementary vocabulary: Legal tender	
	234	Supplementary vocabulary: routine daily occurrences	
	237	Exercises 1-14	
	243	Practice conversations	

Reel .10		UNIT 16	41:30
Band 1	245	Basic Dialog: Buying Food at the Door	
	251	Exercises 1-20	
	262	Practice conversations	

Band 2		UNIT 17	24:00
	265	Basic Dialog: Eating	
	270	Exercises 1-10	
	275	Practice conversations	

Reel .11		UNIT 18	27:45
Band 1	278	Basic Dialog: Work in the Kitchen	
	285	Exercises 1-10	
	291	Practice conversations	

Band 2		UNIT 19	31:40
	294	Basic Dialog: Restaurant and Kitchen	
	303	Exercises 1-14	
	311	Practice conversations	

Reel .12		UNIT 20	16:45
Band 1	313	Review Exercises 1-2	
	316	2-line conversations	
	321	Practice conversations	

	Text Page	Tape Content	Time
Reel .12			
Band 2		UNIT 21	19:52
	324	Basic Dialog: Caring for Children	
	333	Exercises 1-10	
	339	Practice conversations	
Band 3		Unit 22	28:00
	341	Basic Dialog: Climate and Weather	
	348	Exercises 1-7, 9-12	
	355	Practice conversations	
REEL .13		UNIT 23	34:20
Band 1	357	Basic Dialog: Seasonal Crops	
	366	Exercises 1-16	
Band 2		UNIT 24	30:35
	379	Basic Dialog: Geography of Burundi	
	383	Supplementary vocabulary: Some common fauna	
	388	Exercises 1-10	
Reel .14		UNIT 25	26:30
Band 1	397	Basic Dialog: Visit to a Friend's Home	
	400	Supplementary vocabulary: Articles found in the home	
	400	Oral Reading Practice	
	403	Exercises 1-8	
Band 2		UNIT 26	28:45
	411	Basic Dialog: Car Trouble	
	421	Exercises 1-9	
REEL .15		UNIT 27	6:15
Band 1	430	Basic Sentences: The Government of Burundi	
	439	Exercises 1-4	
Band 2		UNIT 28	5:02
	443	Basic Dialog: Miscellaneous topics	
	448	Exercises 1-4	
Band 3		UNIT 29	20:37
	458	Review Dialogs	

Recommendations stemming from the Madison Project

1. Encourage experienced teachers to produce materials. This needs commitment by institutions to support such production by provision of sabbatical leave, arranging for publication, and assurances that promotion prospects will not be jeopardized.
2. Validate materials before publication.
3. Develop a variety of materials and of presentation, to stimulate and maintain students' interest and respect for the language. For example, in addition to language learning course, introductory readers are useful, containing selections from oral and written literature, with parallel translations, notes, and vocabulary.
4. Keep repetition drills to a minimum; these can be very boring. Three-phase drills, for teaching or testing, are preferable to four-phase, for the same reason.
5. Difficult as it is to walk the tight-rope between creating boredom by going too slowly and creating confusion and despair by going too fast, one should try. Experience suggests 25-30 lessons for an elementary course (each lesson with several sections), taking from one to three months. Drawing it out longer than that can result in loss of enthusiasm. (It is useful to set this up as an attainable goal; if validation has been properly carried out, one will know whether it is attainable.)
6. Vocabulary is a difficult matter. The counsel of perfection -- to use only "helpful" items -- can conflict with the need to cover certain morphological areas. Statistical counts of the most frequently used English words are helpful, if judiciously consulted, and a fair number of culture-words is necessary if the language is to serve as more than linguistics fodder; 750-1,000 individual items seems about right for an elementary course.
7. Train speakers who do the recording. If at all possible, speakers should have experience of teaching foreigners, and if not should be clearly sympathetic toward them. A dry run is, of course, important.
8. Record in ideal conditions, that is, a properly equipped studio. A good many of the Madison materials suffer from poor quality of the recording, which is frustrating, especially when the content and approach are good.

Recommendations, continued

9. Use illustrations of the country, people, institutions, and so forth. This may seem childish, but learning the language in vacuo, from disembodied voices and printed words, makes interest flag. Students want to know what everything looks like. At the very least, provide a map.
10. Do not expect things to come right straight away; they never do. A certain tenacity is necessary, which again emphasizes the need for institutional support and encouragement.

CHAPTER 9: REVIEWING SWAHILI TEXTBOOKS

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The courses evaluated here are beginning level courses intended for use in American university Swahili courses. Only courses which are in-print and/or reasonably easily available have been considered. Neither Europeans nor East African texts have been examined as part of this study. Some of the latter texts are fairly easily available and quite appropriate for at least supplemental use, but since these texts are not primarily intended for use in American university classrooms, it did not seem reasonable to compare them to texts intended for this purpose. The texts evaluated are:

- Bennett, Patrick. Swahili Today. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin African Studies Program, rev. ed., 1985.
- Brain, James. Basic Structure of Swahili. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Foreign and Comparative Studies Program, 1966.
- Dihoff, Ivan. Soft-Immersion Swahili. New Haven: Yale Program in African Languages, 1984.
- Hassan, Mohamed M. Tuseme Kiswahili. Berkeley: Simba Publishers, 1973.
- Hinnebusch, Thomas and Sarah Mirza. Kiswahili: Msingi wa Kusema, Kusoma na Kuandika. Lanham, Maryland: University Press of America, 1979.
- Indakwa, John. Swahili: Conversation and Grammar. Buffalo, N.Y.: Black Academy Press, 1972.
- Mwalozi, D. Chilyalya. Swahili, Book I. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1970.

Muganda, Bernard K. Speaking Swahili/Kusema Kiswahili.
Washington: Drum & Spear Press, 1970.

Stevick, E.W., J.G. Mlela, and F.N. Njenga. Swahili: Basic Course. Washington: Foreign Service Institute, 1963.

Vitale, Anthony J. Spoken Swahili. Ithaca, New York: Spoken Language Services, 1979.

Zawawi, Sharifa. Kiswahili kwa Kitendo: An Introductory Course.
New York: Harper and Row, 1971.

I. Identification of the Course:

- | | |
|--|--|
| A.1. Target Language | Swahili |
| 2. Where spoken | Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Eastern Zaire, the Comoro Islands, Rwanda, Burundi |
| 3. Status, type of use | Swahili is the national language in Kenya and Tanzania. It is used as the language of education through the secondary level in Tanzania, and through the primary level in parts of Kenya. It is the language of government and government publication in Tanzania; in Kenya this role is shared with English. It is used in broadcasting in Kenya and Tanzania and is used in broadcasting to East Africa by most international broadcasters. Most East African publishers issue publications in Swahili, and it is the most widely used language for religious purposes in East Africa. |
| 4. Dialect selected | All of the texts considered use the standard dialect. Some minor variations occur but would not affect the decision to use or not use a particular text. |
| 5. Reason for dialect choice | Except for very specialized purposes, there would be not reason to use a dialect other than the standard. |
| 6. Relationship to other dialects | Because the standard dialect is the language of education, publishing, broadcasting, and government, it is understood by most speakers of other dialects. |
| 7. Size of accessible population | 39 million
(Kenya and Tanzania population figures combined. While not all Kenyans or Tanzanians speak Swahili, deleting these figures should balance the addition of speakers in other countries.) |
| 8. What major cultural subgroupings exist within this population | The major cultural sub-groupings of East Africa. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 9. Which cultural traditions are represented in the course | Of the texts examined only the Zawawi and Hinnebusch texts present any significant amount of material which deals specifically with the Swahili as a people. In these two texts this materials is balanced with a significant amount of material devoted to other East African peoples and cultures, although this material tends to be quite generalized. The Muganda and Indakwa texts have a more Pan-African focus. All of the texts examined, with the exception of Dihoff's in terms of vocabulary, have an urban educated, one might even say "elite" focus. |
| 10. Reasons for choice of culture | This is not specified in the texts considered. |
| 11. Relationships to other cultures in the area | See overview. |
| B.1. Author(s) | |
| 2. Institutional affiliations | See individual review headings. |
| 3. Qualifications | I have left this section blank because many of the authors are no longer at the institutions where they were when their texts were originally published. |
| C.1-4 Title and publication date | As in PRB's review The seven sub-questions cover the author's qualifications in linguistics, language pedagogy, ethnography, and experience with the target language and culture. None of the subject text-books are explicit in this area. In some cases it would be possible to supply portions of the requested information through my personal knowledge or deduction; but it seems better to leave this section unanswered. |
| 5. Where available | See listings in the individual review headings. |
| 5. Where available | From the publisher, except for the Indakwa, Mwalozi, Hassan, and Muganda texts which may be out of print. The Stevick FSI text is available as a document from the Supt. of Docs.; GPO. |

6. Components

Hinnebusch, Stevick, Mwalozi, Vitale, and Zawawi include text and tapes. Dihoff includes text, tapes, and computer program. Others: text-book only.

7. Size/length/number

Be:

Br: 151 p.

Di: 181 p.
24 reel to reel or cassette
tapes, computer program.

Ha: 267 p.

Hi: 272 p.
24 tapes.

Indakwa: I didn't note the number of pages of this and it has been recalled on me! I'll try to get it back.

Muganda: 76 p.

Mwalozi: 117 p.; 24 tapes.

Pe:

St: 560 p., tapes.

Vi: 224+ p., number of tapes
uncertain.

Za: 290 p., 40 tapes.

8. Cost

For current price information, consult the publisher.

9. In a course where any of the examined texts is used, the student will need to use the text. In a course where the Dihoff text is used, the student will need the text and the cassette tapes. If the Hinnebusch, Stevick, Vitale or Zawawi texts are used, use of the tapes will be at the instructor's discretion.

10. In all instances the learner will need to purchase the text. In the case of the Dihoff text the student will need to purchase the text and cassette tapes.

11. See individual reviews.

12. See individual reviews.

1.D.	:	Be	Br	Di	Ha	Hi	In	Mu	Mw	Pe	St	Vi	Za
1 is type legible?	:	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2 are special symbols used?	:	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	N
3 subsections distinguished by layout or typography?	:	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Not Always	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
4 single pagination sequence?	:	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
5a is there an index?	:	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N		N	N	N
b if so, how detailed?	:	Bennett-revised edition not available for review; earlier index reasonably complete Zawawi-partial list of grammatical points covered. Brain-reasonably complete. Hinnebusch-reasonably complete.											
6 is there space for user notes?	:	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y		N	Y	Y

E. This segment focuses on audiovisual components and these are not reviewed

F.	:												
1. Supplementary materials learner will use	:	C	NG	N	NG	N	D+	D,G+	N		N	D	N
2. Supplementary materials teacher will need	:	C	NG	N	NG	N	D,G	D,G+	N		N	D,C	N
D-Dictionary	:												
C-Cultural materials	:												
G-Grammar	:												
N-None; if the course used as intended	:												
NG-Not Given; some assumed necessary	:												

3. Availability of supplementary materials:

Dictionary - The only close to current Swahili/English dictionary (Rechenbach) is out of print. The Perrot English/Swahili and Swahili/English listing is much too incomplete. The Johnson dictionary is too old (193x).

Grammar - The reference section to Bennett's text is the best set of grammatical materials available. Brain and Perrot are pocket size and reasonably available. Ashton and Wilson are more comprehensive, but larger.

Cultural - A wide range of cultural materials are easily available.

II. Goals of the Course

1. Performance:

A. Media:	Be	Br	Di	Ha	Hi	In	Mu	Mw	Pe	St	Vi	Za
1a. % of language description in materials	66	87	0	15	20	5	25	20		25	28	20
2a. % language use in materials	34	13	100	85	80	95	75	80		80	72	80
3a. % materials not focused on target language or culture	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0

4-5 These questions, and 1-3b relate to the distribution of activities in and out of the classroom in the actual working of the course. Although texts such as Dihoff and Zawawi do specify the distribution considered most desirable, these courses are also said to be designed for flexible use. Other courses do not specify distribution of activities, with the exception of Stevick. Yet even the Stevick text is said to be flexible enough for use in other ways. The author's ideal use of the material in the Dihoff, Stevick, and Zawawi texts is provided in the introductions to those texts. Other possible uses are discussed in the individual reviews.

6a. % in material of Aural/Oral	90	85	NA	100	90	100	80	100		100	100	85
6b. % in material of Reading/Writing												
6c. % in material of Nonverbal Communication												
6d. % in material of Social/Cultural behavior												

II. i. (continued)

B. Modes:	Be	Br	Di	Ha	Hi	In	Mu	Mw	Pe	St	Vi	Za
1. % of activity Input	: 35	*	60	25	40	40	50	40	*	60	40	45
2. % of activity Output	: 35		40	25	40	40	20	40		40	40	20
3. % of activity	:											
Interaction	: 40		40**	25	20	15	10	10		40**	5	10
4. % of activity	:											
Abstract	: 25**		0	25	20**	5	20**	20**		0	15	15

C. Performance Levels (estimated expectations):

1. Aural/Oral:

a. Abstract	:											
(word level)	: 3		1	2	3	3	3	2		3	2	3
(column level)	: 3		1	2	2	2	2	2		3	2	3
(discourse level)	: 3		1	2	2	2	2	2		3	2	3
b. Input	:											
(word level)	: 2		3	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	2
(column level)	: 2		2	2	2	2	2	2		2	1	2
(discourse level)	: 2		2	1	2	1	2	1		2	1	2
c. Output	:											
(word level)	: 2		3	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	2
(column level)	: 2		3	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	2
(discourse level)	: 2		1	1	2	2	2	2		2	1	2
d. Interactive	:											
(word level)	: 2		3	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	2
(column level)	: 2		3	2	2	2	2	2		2	1	2
(discourse level)	: 2		2	1	2	2	2	1		2	1	2

2. Reading/Writing:

a. Abstract	:											
(word level)	: 3		3	3	3	3	3	3		3	1	3
(column level)	: 3		2	3	3	3	2	2		3	1	3
(discourse level)	: 2		0	1	2	2	2	1		1	1	2
b. Input	:											
(word level)	: 3		1	2	2	2	2	2		2	1	3
(column level)	: 3		1	2	2	2	2	1		2	1	3
(discourse level)	: 2		1	1	2	2	1	1		2	1	2
c. Output	:											
(word level)	: 2		1	2	2	2	1	2		2	1	3
(column level)	: 2		1	2	2	2	2	1		2	1	2
(discourse level)	: 2		1	2	2	1	1	1		1	1	2

3. Non-verbal
Communication

*Will depend upon whether these materials are used as a text or reference grammar

**Figures do not total 100% because input and output figures overlap

Be Br Di Ha Hi In Mu Mw Pe St Vi Za

4. Social/Cultural Behavior

a. Abstract (formulae) :	3	1	2	3	2	2	2		2	2	3
(maintenance) :	3	1	2	2	1/2	1	1		2	1	2
(customs) :	2	1	1	2	1	1	1		1	1	2
b. Input (formulae) :	3	2	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	2
(maintenance) :	2	2	2	2	1/2	1	1		2	1	2
(customs) :	2	1	1	2	1	1	1		1	1	1
c. Output (formulae) :	3	2	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	2
(maintenance) :	2	2	2	2	1/2	1	1		2	1	2
(customs) :	1	1	1	2	1	1	1		1	1	1
d. Interactive (formulae) :	2	3	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	2
(maintenance) :	2	2	2	2	1/2	1	1		2	1	2
(customs) :	1	1	1	2	1	1	1		1	1	1

D. Types of Interaction:

D--described; M--modelled; P--practiced; A--absent; N--not-applicable

1. Simple Transactions:

a. greetings	P	*****	P	P	P	P	P	*****	P	P	P
b. requests	P		P	P	P	P	P		P	P	P
c. health courtesy	M		P	P	P	A	A		P	P	P
d. special occasions	A		A	P	P	A	A		P	A	P
e. names and family	P		P	P	P	P	A		P	P	P
f. occupational inquiries	P		P	P	P	A	A		P	P	P
g. asking meanings	P		P	P	P	A	P		P	P	P
h. food/meal-time courtesy	M		P	A	P	A	A		P	*****	P
i. directions	P		P	P	A	A	A		P	*****	P
j. goals and reasons	P		P*	P	P	A	A		P	*****	P

2. Basic Maintenance Scenes:

a. food and supplies		P	D	P	A	A			P	P	P
b. shelter		P**	A	A	A	A			A	P	P
c. communications		A	A	P	A	A			P	A	P
d. transportation		A	P	P	A	A			P	P	P
e. fees and taxes		A	P	P	A	A			P	A	A
f. permits		A	A	P	A	A			P	A	A
g. employment		A	A	A	A	A			P	A	P
h. theft or injury		P	P	P	A	A			A	A	P
i. entertainment		P	P	P	A	A			A	A	P
j. asking for interpretations			****	P	A	A			P	****	P

*Begging and borrowing are also included

**The scene included is "buying a house"

***Gossiping is also included

****In the Vitale text mealtime courtesy scenes occur only in a restaurant context; only the most basic ways of giving and asking directions are practiced; practice is only provided in the stating of concrete goals; and asking for interpretations occurs only in a sight-seeing context.

*****In Brain, Dihoff, and Perrott, some types of interaction are modelled; but types of interaction are not practiced or described.

Be Br Di Ha Hi In Mu Mw Pe St Vi Za

3. More Sensitive Behaviors:

a. directing work				A	A	A	A	A		P	A	A
b. evaluating work				A	A	A	A	A		P	A	A
c. work-related grievances				A	A	A	A	A		P	A	A
d. emergency assistance				A	A	A	A	A		P	A	P
e. seeking protection				A	A	A	A	A		A	A	A
f. interacting with police				A	A	A	A	A		A	A	A
g. interacting with officials				A	A	A	A	A		A	A	A
h. social and hospitality				P	M	A	A	A		P	A	P
i. festivals and occasions				A	D	A	A	A		P	A	P
j. religion				A	D	A	A	A		A	A	A

E. Roles Practiced:

1. stranger	P	**	**	P	P	P	**	P	**	P	P	P
2. friend	P			P	P	P		P		P	P	P
3. guest				P	P	P		P		P	P*	P
4. host				P	P	P		P		P	A	P
5. tourist				P	P	P		P		P	P	P
6. researcher				A	P	A		A		P	A	A
7. informant or information officer					A	A	A	A		P	A	A
8. consultant (lawyer/clergy)				A	A	A		A		A	A	A
9. customer/client				P	D/M	P		P		P	P	P
10. vender				P	D/M	P		P		P	P	P
11. employer				A	A	A		A		P	A	P
12. employee				A	A	A		A		P	A	P
13. partner				P	A	A		A		A	A	A
14. advisor				P	A	A		A		P	A	A
15. teacher				P	P	P		P		P	A	M
16. student				P	P	P		P		P	A	P
17. language learner				P	P	A		P		P	P	P
18. parent				P	P	A		P		P	A	M
19. child				P	P	A		P		A	A	M
20. official/administrator				A	A	A		A		P	A	P
21. Other:												

HUNTER - Stevik

WEALTHY PERSON - Muganda

GOSSIPER/BEGGAR - Hassan

POOR PERSON - Hassan, Muganda

*guest in commercial (hotel) context only practiced
 **specific roles are not practiced in Brain, Dihoff, Muganda, and Perott

	Be	Br	Di	Ha	Hi	In	Mu	Mw	Pe	St	Vi	Za
ii. Audience:												
A.1. common background assumed?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
2. language to be used in field?	N	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N
3. typical learner academic?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UD	N	Y	Y
4. average educational background?	UG	UG	UG	UG	UG	UG	UG	UG	UG	UG	UG	UG
5. language background expected?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
6. linguistics expected?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
7. previous operation in another culture expected?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
8. ethnographic background expected?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
9. how many students per year will need the language in North America?	1,000											
B.1.a. expected length in hours	150	96	96	NG	150	200+	NG	NG	30/wk	150	200+	
b. how many weeks?	32	32	24	NG	30	30+	NG	NG	NG	30?	40+	
c. time outside the class	2+	2	*	NG	2-5	2	NG	NG	2?	NG	2	
2.a. settings: C=class, L=laboratory	C	C	**	C	C/L	C	C	C/L	C	C/L	C	C/L
b. equipment: R=recorder P=projector	N	N	R***	N	R	N	N	R	N	R	R	R
3. class size	10+	1+	1+	UD	5-30	5-15	UD	5+	UD		1+	1+

*80-100 minutes

**Varied; may be classroom, but could also be other setting

***Each student

5. Qualifications of instructor****

****The background required of instructors is generally not explicit, but Dihoff assumes that one instructor will normally be a first language speaker, as do Stevick and Vitale, but with the later two texts it is assumed the first language speaker will be the only instructor.

III. Structure of the Course

Be Br Di Ha Hi In Mu Mw Pe St Vi Za

i. Philosophy:

A. Rote work/Language use:

1.a. are students to memorize dialogues or texts?	N	N	N	**	**	Y	**	**		Y	Y	Y
b. ratio memorized to self-constructed dialogue	100% (self cons)	NA	NA	-	-	1.1	-	-		100% (mem)	98% (mem)	100% (mem)
2.a. are paradigms memorized or drilled?	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	Not really	D		N	N	N
b. ratio of paradigm practice to meaningful sentences:	100% Mean	NA	1:6	1:4	100% Mean	100% Mean	-	100% Mean		-	100% Mean	-
3.a. is vocabulary to be memorized or drilled?	N	NG	N	NG	N	Y	NG	D		N	Y	N
b. ratio of memorized vocabulary to total course vocabulary:	100%	NA	100%	80%	7:3	50%	-	90%		-	100%	-
c. how many hundred lexical items is student expected to acquire?	12	5	10	5+	11	8+	10+	3		10	8	15

B. Prescribed language/Spontaneous:

1.a. are students asked to translate?	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y
b. ratio of translation to free composition and direct comprehension:	All * Free	NA	1:4	1:5	1:1	1:5	1:6		1:5/10	1:4	1:6/8	
*All translation												
2.a. are there drills with open response?	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y		N	Y	Y
b. ratio closed to open response drills?	1:1	NA	NA	1:2	10:1	NA	1:4	4:1		NA	1:4	1:15

** Dialogues are included - whether these are to be memorized or read (or both and used as the basis for conversational practice) is not specified.

III Structure (continued)

	Be	Br	Di	Ha	Hi	In	Mu	Mw	Pe	St	Vi	Za
3.a. is the student encouraged to go beyond the course?	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	UD	UD		N	Not Really	N
3.b. ratio of controlled to external language experience?	All Controlled	NG	UD	Most	Most	3:1	-	N.G		-	Control Stressed	-

C. Induction/Deduction:

1.a. is grammar explained in the body of the course?	Y	*	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	*	Y	Y	Y
b. ratio of explanation to use:	50%	100%	NA	1:5	1:6	1:10	2:1	1:5		1:5	1:5	1:5
2.a. target vocabulary glossed in the body of the course?	Y	Y	N	N**	N	Y	***	N**		Y	Y	N
3.a. target behaviors explained outside target language text?	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y		Y	N	Y
b. proportion of cultural presentation in language of instruction:	0	0	0	****	95%	100%	****	****		0	0	80%

 *Grammar is the body of the course

**Except in grammatical sections and new vocabulary in dialogues

***Glossing is not consistent

****Little cultural presentation overall; some in dialogues or texts

D. Sequencing:

1. is language presentation sequenced?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2. by complexity of structure?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	-	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3. constructions of different type interspersed?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
4. all grammar points explained as they appear?	-	Y	-	Y	-	N	N	Y	Y	Y	-	Y
5. is cultural presentation sequenced?	Y	Y	NA	Y	Y	N	N	Y		Y	NA	Y
6. by assumed complexity?	Y	Y	NA	Y	Y	NA	NA	Y		Y	NA	Y
7. related behaviors introduced together?	Y	Y	NA	Y	Y	-	-	Y		Y	NA	Y
8. all cultural points explained as soon as mentioned?	-	Y	NA	Y	Y	N	N	N		Y	NA	Y

III. Structure (continued)

	Be	Br	Di	Ha	Hi	In	Mu	Mw	Pe	St	Vi	Za
E. Style												
1. does the course strive to be non-aversive?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y		N	Y	Y
2. does it foster internalization as well as habituation?	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y		N	Y	Y
3. is cognitive style considered?	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y		N	N	Y
4.a. provision for alternative cognitive styles?	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y		N	N	Y
b. instruction in cognitive strategies?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N		N	N	N
5. student asked to learn a metalanguage?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N		N	N	N
6. main language of presentation (E=English, F=French, T=Target lang., I=Inter-language)	E	E	T	E/T	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
7. pre-speech phase assumed?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
8. at what point will student use target language in class? (I=Immediately)	I	UD	I	I	I	I	UD	I	UD	I	I	I

ii. Physical Characteristics:

A.1. what audiovisuals? T=tapes, S=slides, I=illustrations	N	T	I	T/I	N	N	I	N	T	T	T/I
2. cover materials taught?	NA	T	N	Y	NA	NA	N	NA	T	Y	C**
3. audiovisuals integrated?	NA	Y	N	Y	NA	NA	Y	NA	Y	Y	Y
4. used throughout?	NA	Y	Y	Y	NA	NA	Y	NA	Y	Y	Y
5. basis for interaction?	NA	Y	N	*	NA	NA	*	NA	N	N	*

*Illustrations are not explicitly used for such, but could be easily adapted for this purpose.

B.1. what language references are

included? (V=vocabulary,

G=grammar, P=paradigms)

	G,P	***	V	V	V+	V	B	V	***	V	NONE	V+G
	V+P				P+G	CHART						****
2. cover material taught?	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	-	Y		Y	NA	N
3. consistent with rest of the course?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	Y		Y	NA	Y
4. materials clear to non-linguist?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	Y		Y	NA	Y
5.a. separate from body of course? P=in part	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	Y		Y	NA	Y
b. are students referred to them?	Y	N	N	N	N	N		N		N	NA	N

**Transcriptions of tapes are not provided

***Text is grammar

****These are both incomplete with respect to topics covered in the text

C. Except for the Zawawi text, none of the texts examined includes cultural reference materials. The Zawawi text includes lists of names and a discussion of naming, national anthems, a list of newspapers, and song texts.

	Be	Br	Di	Ha	Hi	In	Mu	Mw	Pe	St	Vi	Za
D.												
1. is a text-book included?	Y	*	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	*	Y	Y	Y
2. is there a student workbook?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	**	N	N	N	N
3. is there a teacher manual?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
4. is there a resource book?	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
5. is there a collection of texts?	N	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	***	N	****	N	Y
E.1.a. topics per "unit"	3	1	7-8	1-2	3-5	1-2	6+	1-2		2-3	6-8	3-4
b. time per "unit" (h=hour, d=day, w=week)	1w	NG	1w	1w	1w	1-3d	-	1w		3-5h	3w	1w
2.a. "units" subdivided?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y
b. subdivision regular?	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	-	N	Y		Y	Y	Y
3.a. each "unit" an integrated whole?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y		Y	Y	Y
b. are "units" modular (M) or sequential (S)?	S	S	S	S	S	M	M*	S		S	S	S

IV. Use of the Course:

A.1. does the course rest on a thorough analysis of:												
a. phonology	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
b. inflectional morphology	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
c. sentence-level syntax	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
d. discourse structure	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
e. derivation/semantics	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
2. theoretical orientation	M	W	UD	M	S	I	I	S	S	S	S	M

S=Swahilisist
I=Idiosyncratic
M=Mixed S and I

*"Text" is a reference grammar
**"Text" has a workbook format
***Texts are included in some units
****The texts included are edited conversations

	Be	Br	Di	Ha	Hi	In	Mu	Mw	Pe	St	Vi	Za
IV.A. (continued)												
3. does the course rest on a thorough analysis in:												
a. nonverbal communication	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
b. social structure	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
c. mores	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y
d. life-style	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
e. traditions	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
4. theoretical orientation	NA	NA	NA	NA	UD	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	UD
5. are statements consistent and accurate?	Y	Y	NA	N	Y	N	NA	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
B.1. is there evidence of careful planning?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2. choice of dialect and culture appropriate?	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3. text-book appropriate to intended audience?	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
4. pace appropriate?	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N
5. components integrated?	Y	NA	Y	NA	Y	N	NA	Y	NA	Y	Y	Y
6. has the course been successfully tested?	Y	Y	Y	NG	Y	NG	NG	Y	Y	Y	NG	Y
C.1. suitable for various settings?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.a. too much left to the instructor?	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N
b. too little freedom for the instructor?	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N		Y	Y	N
c. omission and restructuring of material possible?	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N		N	N	N
d. materials adequate without supple- mentation?	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	Y		Y	N	Y
3. linguistic creativity stressed?	Y	NA	Y	N	Y	Y	N	*		*	N	*
4. structures reinforced outside unit where introduced?	Y	NA	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y		Y	Y	Y
5. form/frequency of student evaluation specified? **	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N		N	Y	Y
6. supplementary materials for problems affecting only a minority of learners?	N	N	Y**	N	N	N	N	N		N	N	N

*Exercises which require linguistic creativity are included, but are not stressed.

**Computer program

Sections D-F of Section IV cover such questions as how ready the student will be for the field, what supplementary materials exist and are needed, and ranking of the courses. These issues are covered in the individual reviews.

IV.G. 1. Name of reviewer: Ann Biersteker

2. Institutional affiliation: Department of Foreign
Languages and Literatures
Northern Illinois University

3. Qualifications:

- a. experience in linguistic analysis: 12 years
- b. experience in ethnography: no practical experience
- c. experience in language pedagogy: 15 years
- d. proficiency in target language: 3+ level on
Bennett/Biersteker scale in all areas
- e. experience in target culture: 3+ years in Kenya as
teacher and researcher
- f. preferred teaching methodology: eclectic;
Aural/Oral interaction-focused; learner-centered;
linguistic creativity-stressed
- g. experience teaching target language: 5 1/2 years

I have taught Swahili using the Bennett, Hinnebusch and Zawawi texts each as a primary text, and have used the Dihoff and Mwalizi materials as supplementary texts. I first studied Swahili using the Brain and Mwalizi texts and used the Perrott grammar at various points in my study, especially during field study. I currently use the Hinnebusch text as the primary text in my first year course, the Bennett text as a secondary text, and the Mwalizi and Dihoff texts and supplementary materials. I have used the Zawawi texts more successfully in second year than in first year courses. Used in this way the first lessons can be skimmed for review and supplementation of vocabulary, while the later lessons can be studied at a slower pace. I have also used the Bennett text successfully in a second year course.

I have used Dihoff's drills in intensive Swahili training in Kenya and plan to use them again for this purpose. I would recommend them to the student planning field research who has not used them previously and to any Swahili instructor preparing a student for research or professional residence in East Africa. I intend to use some of the Zawawi texts in the 1985 intensive course in Kenya and will recommend to student participants in this course (as I did prior to the 1983 course) that they obtain a copy of the Brain or Perrot grammar.

B e n n e t t , P a t r i c k R .

The strengths of this text are the suggestions included for classroom and homework activities, the reference grammar appendix, and the cultural references provided in each unit. The conversational and homework activities are imaginative, varied, and appropriate in level. Many are suggestions for group tape activities. The cultural references provided in each unit are to major sources for the study of the Swahili language and the history and cultures of Swahili speaking peoples. In each unit students are referred to a chapter in such a source or to a type of publication (most often newspapers). Although the sources to which reference is made are primarily in English, this practice provides students with intellectually appropriate material and avoids the danger of oversimplification which may occur when complex aspects of culture are explained in the language of instruction in a beginning level text.

The reference grammar appendix is the most comprehensive and reliable Swahili grammar available. This section is written to be used by undergraduates with little or no exposure to linguistic terminology. The topics covered include some such as nominal derivation, clause types, and complex forms which are not discussed fully in other Swahili grammars. Beginning students who have used the text especially appreciate the fact that full paradigms are provided in the reference sections. These are missing in the other Swahili texts and grammars examined. Another section of this appendix beloved by students studying for written exams is that titled, "Rules for the Prediction of Noun Class." Although this appendix is intended for use by beginning students, more advanced students and their instructors will find it a valuable reference grammar.

The major weakness of this text is the type of drills provided. Many of the drills are very difficult, others are purely grammatical, and many result in the production of utterances which have little potential for utility in actual situations. The drills provide practice of useful structures which challenges the very best students, but weaker students are confused by drills requiring complex instructions and multiple changes.

In a course in which abstract knowledge is a primary goal, this text is a logical choice as a primary text. If abstract knowledge is even a secondary goal of the course, this text should be seriously considered as at least a supplementary text. In a course where abstract knowledge is expected, students will appreciate this text's reference grammar. It is also a text suitable for use with graduate students in African studies who may not need the cultural introduction provided by the Hinnebusch and Zawawi texts. The text is also very

appropriate for use in a course where linguistic creativity is emphasized.

Swahili Today has been extensively tested and revised. It has been used primarily in first year courses, but has also been used as a review text in at least one second year course. If the text is not chosen for use in a first year course, use of the text in a second year course for the purpose of review of structures would be quite appropriate. At this level, even the most challenging drills will be reasonable, and the purely grammatical drills can be selectively utilized as necessary. The high performance level goals set in this text would also make it appropriate for use at this level.

Brain, James. Basic Structure of Swahili. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University, Foreign and Comparative Studies Program.

This text is a reference grammar to which translation exercises have been appended. While it is not quite pocket-size, it is light enough for field use and also have adequate space for student notes. The text covers greetings more comprehensively than all other texts except Zawawi and is unique among those examined in covering Arabic greetings widely used by Swahili speakers. Other advantages of this text for field use are that the index is in the front and easy to use, and that the text is easily available.

As a reference grammar, this text is less complete than the reference grammar included in Bennett's text. It lacks Bennett's coverage of clause types and nominal derivation and also does not include the paradigms which Bennett provides.

Dihoff, Ivan. Soft-Immersion Swahili. New Haven: Yale Program in African Languages, 1984.

This text assumes a pedagogical approach in which habituation is central to the learning/"acquisition" process and conversational fluency is the primary course objective. The text consists of 288 sequenced substitution drills ordered on the basis of the complexity of the structures presented for English speakers and necessity for mastery of the structures for the achievement of "threshold level skills".

The drills presented are superior to those in other texts because of the way in which they are ordered, their level and length, and the format in which they are presented. Although all of the drills are substitution drills, this has simply eliminated the need for instructions. It has not limited the variety of the drills included. Further, nearly all of the utterances students will be producing while doing the drills are meaningful and potentially useful. This is partially a function of the structure of the drills and partially a function of the fact that the vocabulary chosen is culturally relevant. The cultural relevance of the vocabulary merits other texts examined. Students who have mastered this vocabulary will have mastered vocabulary they can actually use in East Africa in situations where they could not use English.

The drills intended for use in a course in which the soft-immersion method is employed, but they could also be adopted in courses where other methodologies are utilized. The only two weaknesses of the drills are that in some instances stems and prefixes are used as cues and in a few cases cues are ambiguous as to slot. The use of stems and prefixes as cues has the disadvantage that students hearing these as independent (especially hearing them repeatedly) might be tempted to use them independently. Cues ambiguous as to slot have the disadvantage of introducing an element of choice and conscious deliberation into a process which is intended to be automatic.

Consideration of use of this text must balance the strengths of the drills against the fact that the text will need to be supplemented in a variety of ways. The drills after use in class and outside of class are to be followed by "directed and free conversation" (p. 5). Guidelines for this practice are not provided by the text and suitable exercises and topic will need to be developed by the instructor. In addition the drills provide no practice on even such basic "scenes" as "greetings and leavetaking" or "requests and thanks." Appropriate practice of these and other such scenes will also need to be provided by the instructor as part of the conversational practice.

If these materials are not chosen as the primary materials in a course, their use as supplemental materials should be

considered by teachers preparing students for research or other work in East Africa. Another use of these materials might be with students having difficulty with particular structures at the beginning, or even at more advanced levels. The tapes and computer program available as part of this course make it especially suitable for this purpose.

Hassan, Mohamed M. Tuseme Kiswahili. Berkeley: Simba Publishers, 1973.

The most noticeable feature of this text is the inappropriateness of the illustrations. The styles of dress illustrated are distinctly non-East African.

The dialogues included are both the strongest and weakest feature of this text. Many of the dialogues are long and difficult and introduce vocabulary and structures not covered in the lessons. Yet they also introduce useful idiomatic phrases and would interject more humor into the classroom than most language text dialogues. Some of these dialogues might be quite suitable for use as supplementary materials or review materials in a course where the primary text is a bit drier (Zawawi or Stevick, for example). The babysitter and naughty children interchange in Lesson 10 could easily be used in a variety of ways in courses where texts other than this one are used. The potential user should be warned that not all of the dialogues are as appropriate as this example. "Gossiping" is the type of language behavior most emphasized in the dialogues of this text. Most Americans will not need to practice extensively the role of impoverished guest who begs a host or friend for money; nor will they need to practice buying a house. The most offensive dialogue (Lesson 31) is one in which students would practice ethnic stereotyping.

Despite its length, this text covers fewer grammatical topics than any of the other texts except those by Mwalozi and Muganda. Only some uses of the subjunctive are covered. Relative forms are only partially covered and consecutives and hypotheticals are not introduced.

Thomas Hinnebusch and Sarah Mirza. Kiswahili: Msingi wa
Kusema, Kusoma na Kuandika. Lanham, Maryland:
University Press of America, 1979.

This is one of the most widely used first year Swahili texts in American universities with good reason. It is written for an audience of American undergraduates and presents the Swahili language and Swahili culture accurately and appealingly. This text also has an attractive and easy to follow format.

The text does not assume familiarity with East African life and culture, nor familiarity with linguistics. Most of the cultural content is presented through brief, author written, readings which present a variety of aspects of life in East Africa. These readings are basic in both linguistic and cultural content, positive in perspective, and many focus on "high culture" aspects; i.e. literature (oral narrative and written poetry), or special occasions (weddings, holidays). Because of these features, this text presents both the language and culture appealingly to an undergraduate audience with little or no prior exposure to the language or culture. It is an excellent text for use in a course where a primary objective is to entice students into further study of the language and culture.

A second strength of the text is the type of dialogues included. These are realistic in terms of both the response pattern presented and cultural content. They are also short and incorporate manageable amounts of new materials while building upon previously introduced vocabulary and structures. The dialogues in each unit are also flexible enough so that in the build-up to "free" conversational practice, dialogues in the unit and/or parts of such, and parts of dialogues from earlier units can easily be combined and gradually modified to introduce additional variation.

A third strength of this text is that most of the dialogues in the final six units focus on asking for and providing information about language and culture. Topics covered include asking names of objects, explaining customs, comparing customs, asking for grammatical explanation, providing definitions by giving examples and identifying resemblances, asking about meanings, and explaining material read. These topics are essential for the student who plans to continue studying the language and are often ignored.

Another unusual factor of this text is the attention given to women's lives and activities. This does not make the text oriented toward male or female students in that dialogue roles are seldom specified as having specifically male and female roles. It does mean that aspects of East African life often

neglected in other texts, are well treated in this course; for example, the upbringing of young women (p. 230), food preparation (p. 226 and 228), hair plaiting (p. 217), and a non-male biased view of East African cultures is presented.

This text does, however, have some weak points. The drills provided are simple, dull, and lack variety. Their only virtue is as a script for the tapes. As such, they might provide useful outside of class review for students who have not grasped the main points of a lesson. In some instances very stems, tense markers, and adjective stems are provided as cues. This has the pedagogical disadvantage of presenting for comprehension, items which cannot be used in the form presented.

A second disadvantage is that the noun class system is not presented until, and is then presented in its entirety in, unit 14. This means demonstratives and adjectives are introduced later than in most Swahili courses and that possessives are used extensively before any drill or practice involving their use is provided.

The most frequent criticism of the text by students who have used it is that there are not enough examples provided in the grammatical explanations. The explanations themselves are quite adequate, but additional examples would clarify many points.

It should also be noted that while this is an excellent text for most purposes, and the vocabulary introduced would be particularly useful for the student planning research on Swahili or Swahili culture, some basic maintenance scenes are missing as is a simple transaction scene, some fundamental roles, and some crucial vocabulary ("to tell", "left", "right", and body parts).

*These features which are advantages in most contexts, might be disadvantages if students in a particular course are cynical and/or specialists in some areas of African studies who would prefer more detailed and complex treatment of certain of the topics covered. Supplementary readings and/or vocabulary would likely suffice for this. If the text is to be used in training students who will be doing fieldwork, it would be advisable to introduce some negative terms at this or a more advanced level

o f t r a i n i n g .

John Indakwa, Swahili: Conversation and Grammar. (Buffalo, N.Y.: Black Academy Press, 1972)

The concepts upon which this book is based are appealing. Its intent is to introduce culture as well as language and to this end there are passages on geography and history and a series of mini-biographies of Afro-American and African leaders. Although these passages are for the most part simplistic, in some cases inaccurate, generally read like translations from English, and are now dated, they could be used as supplementary or review materials in a class where students have had little exposure to African history.

The fact that this text is based on appealing concepts should not obscure the fact that it is the most poorly organized text examined, the grammatical notes included are incomplete and in some instances inaccurate, and it is difficult to understand why some topics are explained and others are not. For example, in lesson 25 the negative subjunctive is first used and the first use of an object prefix occurs, yet the topic explained in this unit is the use of "kwa sababu" and "hata hivyo" - i.e. the use of two simple conjunctions most texts introduce as vocabulary without explanation. This text also includes a large number of lessons focused on topics which it is unlikely students will discuss in East Africa. For example, lesson 67 emphasizes the topics of snow tires and anti-freeze, and there are four units on the 1969 lunar landing.

The principles upon which this text is organized are difficult to determine. They cannot be difficulty of grammatical structures for the English speaker or pragmatic need in that locative forms (while not easy for the English speaker, very essential pragmatically) are introduced in one of the last lessons after relative forms and hypotheticals. Lessons are said to be organized to include "M" ("manipulation of grammar") and "C" ("communication") phases. Unfortunately this organization is not evident in all lessons and the "communication" phase most often consists of a statement telling the student to practice what has been introduced in the "manipulative phase."

This text is also extremely poorly edited. Four or more typographical errors per page is not uncommon.

Indakwa, continued

¹The concept of two phases was, to the best of my knowledge, first introduced in the 1965 Foreign Service Institute publication, Experimental Course in Swahili. The lessons in Stevick's Swahili:

An Active Introduction are also organized according to these principles. In this text the concept of "conversation" as realized in the "C" phase is very limited. Students take turns taking each of two parts in dialogues provided in the text, and then vocabulary is substituted, but even simple variations in structures are not permitted (Earl Stevick, Swahili: An Active Introduction. Washington: FSI, 1966, p. xi).

D. Chilyalya Mwalozi. Swahili, Book I. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1970.

This text has a workbook format and is one of the most attractive texts in terms of lay-out and illustrations. While it is the least comprehensive of the texts considered, and for this reason will probably be rejected as a primary text by most instructors, it is the one text that will be found to be most fully compatible with others because of the fact that vocabulary and structures are highly controlled.

This text could easily be used as a workbook with most other courses. Better students at the end of the first semester or beginning of the second semester find the reading passages challenging. Many of the exercises are very appropriate as review assignments for weaker students.

Bernard K. Muganda. Speaking Swahili/Kusema Kiswahili.
Washington: Drum and Spear Press, 1970.

This text is a hodgepodge of inaccurate and poorly written grammatical explanations, dull translation exercises, and difficult reading passages. Most Swahili teachers will be offended by passages such as:

"Probably it is easier to write Swahili poetry than any other language. If one knows the three rules of writing swahili poems, he should not have any problem writing a swahili poem. The three rules are: All Swahili poems must have (1) Rhythm, (2) Rhyme and (3) Consistency sic - all punctuation and capitalization are as in the original (p. 50)."

Women students will be offended by the sexist implications of some of the exercises and passages, and the numerous passages and examples which refer to heavy drinking will be inappropriate for use in most classrooms. Students who have completed the exercises provided will not be prepared to read the reading passages included. The texts included certainly are worthwhile, but would not justify use of this text. They have been reprinted from other sources and the student would be advised to
r e a d t h e o r i g i n a l .

Stevick, E.W., J.G. Mlela, and F.N. Njenga. Swahili: Basic Course. Washington: Foreign Service Institute, 1963.

If one were to teach an audiolingual method Swahili course in 1985, this would be the text to use. The text is designed for use in a course taught by this method and would be difficult to use in a course where other methods are employed.

This text includes a greater variety of roles and scenes than any other and along with Dihoff's is unusual among the texts examined in being designed to prepare students for professional experience in East Africa. This is the only text which provides practice in the scenes: "directing work", "evaluating work", and "work-related grievances". It is one of two texts which provides practice in the scene of emergency assistance. It is also one of the two texts in which each of the following roles is practiced: researcher, informant or information officer, employee, employer, advisor, and official or administrator.

The variety of roles and scenes provided by this text must be balanced against other negative factors in addition to that of the implicit methodology. The basis for the ordering of topics in this text is unclear. On the basis of utility and ease for the English speaker, most Swahili texts introduce numbers fairly early. Here this topic, and also the fairly easy future negative, are introduced after both relative clauses and the subjunctive. This text also has a very unattractive format. It is often unclear where one selection ends and another begins. Another limitation is that in a large number of drills stems are cued. Cueing by use of stems is discussed as a negative feature of both the Dihoff and Hinnebusch texts (p. 24-25, 27-28) but is much more prevalent in this text where it occurs in late as well as in early drills.

A useful feature of this text (also found in that of Dihoff) is that in the vocabulary the page number where an item is first used is listed. The last twenty-five units in this text are edited conversations. These conversations would have been even more useful had they not been edited, but even in edited form and after twenty years, the textbook conversations might provide useful material for use in intermediate or even advanced courses. The tapes of these conversations are unedited and for this reason of even greater value for use at this level.

Another J. Vitale, Spoken Swahili (Ithaca, New York: Spoken Language Services, 1979)

If used with caution and common sense, this text might be adequate in a self-instructional course for short-term visitors to urban areas in East Africa. It is not suitable for its intended use as, "a first year university course in Swahili" (p. iii), nor would it be suitable, in most cases, "for self-study in the field" (p. iii). It is unsuitable for these purposes because:

1. It aims at low-level skills in all areas (see: questionnaire).
2. Certain skill areas crucial to many studying Swahili are ignored (reading/writing and non-verbal) or given scant attention (greetings are the only social/cultural behavior treated).
3. The types of interaction practiced at low level. Although conversational practice is recommended, little guidance for such is provided.
4. Few roles are practiced. Those practiced are relevant to tourists but not to those with other purposes in visiting East Africa.
5. The settings of the types of interaction practiced are exclusively urban.
6. Utterances beyond the single clause level - with the exception of occasional simple conjoined clauses - are not presented.

Even short-term visitors may find some of the scenes or parts of scenes useless (extended conversation about the weather, getting a hair-cut and shave, and talking about lipstick, fingernail polish, and if shoes are for sale on the ninth floor. Obtaining veal in an East African restaurant would be difficult, whether one used English or Swahili. Asking for "nyama ya kondoo" lamb would not help the situation). Other scenes would be offensive (ordering pork, asking why there are many mosques, and telling someone he is blind).

The text illustrates the limitations of using a fixed format across languages and cultures. An American English speaker without exposure to Spanish, will find Swahili orthographic use of "ny" for less confusing than the "simplified" "n" used here. Likewise, few Americans in East Africa will choose to buy nailpolish or have their haircut or order veal or pork in places where only Swahili is spoken, nor should it be suggested that they try to do so. There are no

nine story department stores in East Africa. Even a short term visitor would be better advised to use the Zawawi phrase book (Sharifa Zawawi, Say it in Swahili. New York: Dover, 1972) and hire an East African Swahili speaker for conversational practice, than to use this text.

Zawawi, Sharifa. Kiswahili kwa Kitendo: An Introductory Course. New York: Harper & Row, 1971.

This text and that of Hinnebusch and Mirza are the two most widely used beginning level Swahili texts. Kiswahili kwa Kitendo has a very attractive format and includes exceptionally clear illustrations as well as photographs of varying quality. The variety of maps included is especially noteworthy. Many of the illustrations are used as the basis for activities.

The most obvious other strength of this text is the variety and extent of the cultural materials included. This text includes more information on customs and daily life than any other examined. There are units which focus on holidays and special occasions, hospitality, and the family. Readings in the final section of the text cover education, kinship, urban and rural life, art, oral traditions, government, and economic life. These readings are very difficult because of the specialized vocabulary used. Many are also now dated.

The drills included in this text are very long and include too little variation in structures practiced and too much variation in vocabulary. The text suggests few interaction-oriented activities and there are a large number of translation exercises.

A significant difficulty which faces the instructor who uses this text is that the pace increases dramatically starting with Lesson 19. Up until Lesson 19 the units are fairly easy. Structures are introduced at a slower rate than in other texts and the amount of vocabulary introduced is very reasonable. Starting with Lesson 19, more structures are introduced in each unit, and the reading passages have high concentrations of structures and vocabulary not introduced until later units. While this shift in pace and the tedious drills make this text difficult to use in beginning classes, the text is quite suitable for use as a primary text or supplemental text at the intermediate level. In a second year class units 1-19 can be covered at a fairly rapid pace, and then the remaining units can be covered much more slowly.

A final limitation of this text as a first year text is that the grammatical notes are sometimes confusing or unclear and often far too detailed and complex for comprehension by students who do not have great interest in the structure of Swahili. Even at more advanced levels many students may wish to skip the grammatical notes.

Conclusion

The Swahili teacher may choose between a number of very good, if not excellent, courses. The choice of a particular course will depend upon class goals and teaching and learning styles. In a number of respects the available Swahili texts provide models for texts in other languages. The reference grammar appendix of the Bennett text is a model for other texts in terms of accuracy, level and completeness, and because of the fact that it is an appendix. The drills of Dihoff's text set a high standard for the writing of drills in terms of variety, level, and appropriateness of vocabulary, which subsequent texts should attempt to meet. The Hinnebusch text is a model for others in terms of appealing presentation of cultural material and for the writing of dialogues which are flexible, of an appropriate length, and include an appropriate mixture of formulaic and non-formulaic elements. Writers of other texts should also consider the format of the Zawawi text where the illustrations including maps are clear and are used as the basis for activities.

The Bennett and Dihoff texts also present two ways in which cassette tapes can be used by students outside of the classroom. The Bennett, Hinnebusch, and Zawawi texts present three alternative methods of presenting cultural content: by reference to other sources, by simplified texts in the target language; and by a mixture of description in English and texts simplified in terms of structure, but not in terms of vocabulary in the target language. Each of these alternatives should be considered by writers of textbooks for other African languages.

The goals of a particular language course will be a primary factor in the decision to select a particular Swahili text. Most of the available texts do focus on aural/oral aspects of language learning, but there are significant differences in the emphasis given to activities focused on different communicative modes (See: chart). The Bennett text sets higher performance level goals overall, but the Dihoff text sets high non-abstract aural/oral performance goals and the Zawawi text sets high reading level goals.

More sensitive behaviors (II i D 3 a-j) are rarely modelled or practiced in the available Swahili text. Only in the Stevick text are interactions of this type practiced. This is also one of the two texts in which the researcher role is practiced. Given the limitations of this text (See: individual review) it is clear that there is a need for Swahili materials in which such roles and behaviors are practiced.

Of the available texts only the Dihoff and Stevick texts assume that the average student user will use the language in the field of some professional or scholarly capacity. This is not to say that the other texts are not aimed at appropriate

audiences. It may be the case that the majority of those who study Swahili in American universities do not intend to use the language in a scholarly or professional capacity in East Africa. The "high culture" emphasis of the Hinnebusch and Zawawi texts will present such students with a fascinating body of information about Swahili culture and East African life which may intrigue them into further study. Even the African specialist will find many of the lessons interesting and appealing, but neither student will be especially well-prepared for day-to-day life in East Africa. Although the greatest need is for a learner's dictionary of Swahili (See: I.F. 3. Availability of Supplementary Materials), there is certainly also a need for a manual of interaction activity oriented toward field use which includes practice of sensitive behaviors and roles such as that of researcher, consultant, partner, advisor, and administrator. Such a manual might also contain or provide references to material describing mores beyond greetings.

Materials such as the Hinnebusch and Zawawi texts are essential to Swahili study in American universities, but it should be noted that these two generalist and widely used texts are becoming dated and are in need of content revision (especially the older Zawawi text).

The importance a teacher attaches to habituation in language learning will be another important variable in the choice of a Swahili text. If habituation is considered to play a major role in language learning, the Dihoff or Zawawi texts will be better choices than the Bennett and Hinnebusch texts. If linguistic creativity or abstract knowledge is to be emphasized, the Bennett text would be the first choice.

CHAPTER 10: REVIEWING BERBER COURSES

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The choice of Swahili and Berber as test cases for the Bennett/Biersteker course evaluation questionnaire was made with a number of considerations in mind. We wished to be able to use the instrument on a wide variety of course structures, so as to test its adequacy. We also wanted to work with several courses on the same language, to determine whether the instrument would serve as an aid in choosing between alternative courses. We also wanted to review materials from different linguistic and cultural areas, to be sure that the content of the questionnaire is not area-specific.

In selecting languages to meet these criteria, Swahili was an easy choice. Both Biersteker and I have worked extensively in the language, it is structurally typical in many ways of the very large Bantu language family, it is frequently taught in North America, and many courses exist, uniformly focused on Standard Swahili but differing, often radically, in structure and content.

Berber was chosen in part for contrast. These languages are typical of Afro-Asiatic, not Bantu or Niger-Congo. They are spoken in North Africa by populations which use Arabic as a lingua franca, while Swahili is a national language and lingua franca in much of East Africa. Furthermore, Swahili is mostly taught as the very uniform Standard Swahili, and Berber consists of a large group of closely related languages or significantly

differing dialects. At the same time, because of its great areal spread and number of speakers, Berber has a high priority. There also exist a number of courses with a diversity of structure as great as is seen in Swahili courses.

A problem here is the treatment of Berber as a unit. Although it is normal to refer to Shilha, Rif, Kabyle, and Tuareg, for example, as "dialects" of Berber, there are differences in phonology, grammar, and lexicon which are at least as great as those separating many Bantu languages. There are, to be sure, a great similarity and a tendency toward chains and clusters of mutually intelligible forms of Berber, but the same might be said of much of Eastern Bantu. Tuareg certainly should be classed as a distinct language within the Berber group, and it is my feeling that several of the subgroups of the cluster I have called Central Berber (including Shilha, "Tamazight," Rif, and Kabyle, among others) should be recognized as languages rather than distinct dialects of a single language. This, then, means that in comparing Berber courses focused on different dialects (and it appears that no two of the courses reviewed here use the same dialect) we may in fact be comparing materials for two quite different languages.

Another problem proved to be the availability of courses. I know of the existence of a number of Berber courses which could not be reviewed because no copy was available. The majority of Berber courses, not surprisingly, are written for a French audience, and many of these are not readily at hand in North America. I have included a number of Francophone courses

here, since often no English-speaking course is available for a given Berber language. It should be remembered, however, that a course designed for French speakers may not be well-adapted to use by an English speaker, and that the questionnaire used in these reviews, having been designed for Anglophone course materials, may not do adequate justice to these courses.

I have reviewed seven text-books, constituting eight courses (one of the works covers two distinct dialects, separately). I have only reviewed textbooks, not complete sets of course materials; although two of the courses include tapes, I have had access to audiovisual materials for only one. All seven represent Central Berber; although Tuareg course materials exist, I was not able to gain access to them in time for this review; for the same reason no Spanish-medium textbooks have been included. These omissions, while in a way regrettable, make for somewhat greater comparability; there is much less structural differentiation within Central Berber than there is between a Central Berber language and Tuareg.

The forms of Berber represented include Shilha, Kabyle, and four "Tamazight" dialects; the latter are part of a large cluster which probably should be treated as including at least two distinct languages. These cover the best documented and most numerous Central Berber groups, although the omission of Rif is unfortunate. The textbooks are:

K1: de Vincennes, Sr., Louis, and J.M. Dallet.
Initiation a la langue berbere (Kabylie).
Fort-National: Fichier de Documentation Berbere,
1960.

- K2: Applegate, Joseph R. Spoken Kabyle - A Basic Course (prepublication draft). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1966.
- S1: Laoust, Emile. Cours de berbère marocain, dialecte du Sous, du Haut et de l'Anti-atlas. Paris, Challamel: 1936.
- S2: Aspinion, Robert. Apprenons le berbère. Rabat: 1953.
- T1: Laoust, E. Cours de berbère marocain, dialecte du Maroc central. Paris, Geuthner: 1939.
- T2: Abdel-Massih, Ernest T. A Course in Spoken Tamazight. Ann Arbor: Center for Near Eastern and North African Studies, 1971.
- T3: Harries, Jeanette. Tamazight Basic Course. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1974.

The reviews that follow will, as far as possible, be so organized as to display data on the textbooks in parallel, for ease of comparison. The abbreviations noted above will be used in reference to the courses. K1 and K2 deal with Kabyle, S1 and S2 with Shilha. T1, T2, and T3 deal with "Tamazight"; T2 covers two dialects, and its two sections will be differentiated when relevant as T2a and T2b (Ayt Ayache and Ayt Seghrouchen, respectively).

A. The Questionnaire

I. Identification of the Course:

- A.1. target language K1: Kabyle K2: Kabyle
 S1: Shilha S2: Shilha
 T1: Tamazight T2: Tamazight
 T3: Tamazight
2. where spoken K1, K2: Northern Algeria, Kabylie
 S1, S2: South-western Morocco,
 High Atlas and Anti-Atlas
 T1, T2, T3: Central Morocco,
 Middle Atlas
3. status, type of use Berber is not used as an official
 language or in education, but it
 is used to some extent in
 broadcasting; many, perhaps most,
 speakers are bilingual in Arabic
4. dialect selected K1: At-Mangellat
 K2: NS (not stated)
 S1: Sous
 S2: Astuken (normalized)
 T1: Zemmour
 T2a: Ayt Ayache
 T2b: Ayt Seghrouchen
 T3: Ait Mgild
5. reason for dialect
 choice K1: K2, T1, T2: NS
 S1: number of speakers, prestige,
 conservatism
 S2: choice of dialect not
 explained, but language
 normalized to facilitate
 interdialectal intelligibility
 T3: conservatism, intelligibility
 with other dialects
6. relationship to other
 dialects K1, K2, S1, S2: NS
 T1, T2a, T3: Zemmour, Ayt Ayache,
 and Ait Mgild are said to be
 easily intelligible; no
 statement on T2b.
7. size of accessible
 population K1, K2: about 1,300,000
 S1, S2: about 2,000,000
 T1, T2, T3: no separate figures
 for dialects but for
 "Tamazight" as a whole, about
 2,000,000

B.1. author(s) See listings in the introduction

K1: Diplomes de berbère
de l'Université d'Alger

K2: Department of Near Eastern &
African Languages, UCLA

S1: Ecole supérieure de la langue
Arabe et des dialectes
Berbères, Rabat

S2: Institut des Hautes Etudes
Marocaines

T1: See S1

T2: Center for Near Eastern and
North African Studies,
University of Michigan

T3: African Studies Program,
University of Wisconsin-
Madison

C.1-4: Title and publication data

Of the Francophone materials, K1
may be available through the
Fichier de Documentation
Berbere; the remainder are
probably out of print, S1
being available in only a few
libraries in North America
K2: available as ERIC document ED
034198

5. where available
(continued)
- T2: probably still available from
the University of Michigan
Center for Near Eastern and
North African Studies
T3: available from the African
Studies Program, University of
Wisconsin-Madison
6. components
- T2: textbook and tapes
T3: textbook and tape/slide
programs
Others: Textbook only
7. size/length/number
- K1: Vol. 1 (grammaire), 254 pp.;
Vol. 2 (exercices) contains
several sub-sections,
separately paginated about
250-300 pp.
K2: 443 pp., or 7 microfiches
S1: 318 pp.
S2: 336 pp.
T1: 323 pp.
T2: 456 pp. (240 devoted to Ayt
Ayache, 210 to Ayt
Seghrouchen).
Tapes, number unknown.
T3: 256 pp.
Audiovisuals, 32 reels of
tape, 260 slides.
Page size for K2, T2, T3 is 8 1/2
x 11; for K1, S1, T1 about
half that.
8. cost
- For current price information,
consult the publisher
- 9-12: These questions cover the importance to the student of
the various components. Given the material under review,
I can summarize. Whatever the materials used, the
student will need access to the textbook during the
course; for the two with tapes, but especially T3, these
should be used as well. As for which materials the
student should purchase, the question of which CAN be
purchased is more relevant, since most are far from
readily available. Only K1 (Vol. 1), S1, and T1 would be
of real use to the student after completing the course,
and these only for reference; none are suitable for field
use, in my opinion. Given the numbers of students and
the scarcity of materials, it might be best with most of
these for the teacher to stock text and tapes, and have
the student copy those portions needed, when this does
not violate copyright.

	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
D.1. is type legible?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2. are special symbols used?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3. are subsections distinguished by layout or typography?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
4. single pagination sequence?	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
5.a. is there an index?	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y
b. if so, how detailed?	K1: an excellent grammatical index; the dialogues and exercises are not well indexed S1: a detailed table of contents and an index to the classified vocabularies S2: a detailed table of contents, good subject index, list of tables T1: a good table of contents only T3: a very detailed table of contents only							
6. is there space for user notes?	K1: N	K2: Y	S1: N	S2: N	T1: N	T2: Y	T3: N	
E.	This segment focuses on audiovisual components; as stated earlier, I will not review these.							
F.	These questions focus on supplementary materials such as outside readings, dictionaries, and reference grammars. These also do not apply here. None of the textbooks assume access to other materials, although there are occasional references to such materials. Given the scarcity of works on Berber in the open market, each textbook is self-contained.							

II. Goals of the Course:

1. Performance:

	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T3
A. Media:							
1.a. % language description in materials	33%	33%	75%	90%	75%	20%	50%
2.a. % language use in materials	66%	66%	25%	10%	25%	80%	50%
3.a. % material not focused on target language/culture	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%

4-5. These questions, and 1-3b, relate to the distribution of activities in and out of the classroom in the actual working of the course. None of the textbooks reviewed here are very specific as to precise techniques for their use, and some, like T3, claim to be designed for flexibility in use. Rather than speculate as to how they might best be used, I prefer to omit these sections.

	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2	T3
6.a. % in material of Aural/Oral	100%	100%	*	*	*	100%	70%
b. % in material of Reading/Writing	0%	0%	*	*	*	0%	10%
c. % in material of Nonverbal Communication	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
d. % in material of Social/Cultural behavior	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	20%

*There is a problem with S1, S2, and T1, in that they describe and teach a language they describe as spoken only, not a written language, in terms appropriate to teaching Reading/Writing. All activities are written, and they tend to speak of letters rather than sounds, for example. Probably they should be classed as at least 80% Reading/Writing.

Note also that because of the omission of questions 4-5 this section has been modified to include assigned student work as well as notes.

II.1. (continued)

B. Modes:	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
1. % of activity Input	40%	40%	40%	3%	40%	50%	90%	40%
2. % of activity Output	20%	40%	10%	7%	10%	50%	10%	20%
3. % of activity								
Interaction	10%	10%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	20%
4. % of activity								
Abstract	30%	10%	50%	90%	50%	0%	0%	20%

C. Performance Levels (estimated expectations):

1. Aural/Oral	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2	T2b	T3
a. Abstract								
(word level)	A3	A3	A2	A2	A2	A3	A3	A3
(clause level)	B3	B3	B3	B3	B3	B3	B3	B3
(discourse level)	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C2	C2	C2
b. Input								
(word level)	A2	A2	A1	A1	A1	A3	A3	A3
(clause level)	B2	B2	B1	B1	B1	B3	B2	B3
(discourse level)	C2	C2	C1	C1	C1	C2	C1	C2
c. Output								
(word level)	A3	A2	A1	A1	A1	A3	A2	A3
(clause level)	B3	B2	B1	B1	B1	B3	B2	B3
(discourse level)	C3	C2	C1	C1	C1	C2	C2	C3
d. Interactive								
(word level)	A2	A2	A1	A1	A1	A2	A2	A3
(clause level)	B2	B3	B1	B1	B1	B2	B2	B3
(discourse level)	C1	C2	C1	C1	C1	C2	C1	C2

2. Reading/Writing:

I have not included ratings in this area. These are mostly unwritten languages, although there has been much recent literary production in Kabyle, and there are a number of early text collections in Shilha. Given the mixture of Arabic and Roman-based writing systems, the wide range of orthographic traditions in each script, and the considerable dialect differences, reading and writing Berber is a special problem. Students should be

reasonably proficient in reading materials in the same orthography as the textbook used, but that leaves much unsaid.

3. Nonverbal Communication:

This section may likewise be handled without a thorough charting. Intonation is discussed and illustrated in the three Anglophone textbooks, ignored in the remainder; students working with these materials and tapes should be reasonably proficient on completion. Gesture, posture, and expression are not discussed, but students working with a Berber speaker or with the slide-tape programs of T3 should pick up something in these areas.

4. Social/Cultural Behavior:

	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
a. Abstract								
(formulas)	A1	A2	A1	A1	A1	A2	A2	A2
(maintenance)	B1	B1	B1	B1	B1	B1	B1	B2
(customs)	C3	C2	C1	C1	C1	C3	C3	C3
b. Input								
(formulas)	A2	A2	A1	A1	A1	A2	A2	A2
(maintenance)	B1	B1	B1	B1	B1	B2	B2	B3
(customs)	C3	C2	C1	C1	C1	C2	C2	C3
c. Output								
(formulas)	A1	A2	A1	A1	A1	A2	A2	A2
(maintenance)	B1	B1	B1	B1	B1	B2	B2	B2
(customs)	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C2	C2	C2
d. Interactive								
(formulas)	A1	A2	A1	A1	A1	A2	A2	A2
(maintenance)	B1	B1	B1	B1	B1	B2	B2	B2
(customs)	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C2

D. Types of Interaction:

D-described M-modelled P-practiced

A-absent N-not applicable

1. Simple Transactions:	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
a. greetings	M	P	A	A	A	P	M	P
b. requests	M	P	A	A	A	P	M	P
c. health courtesy	M	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
d. special occasions	M	A	A	A	A	A	A	A

1. Simple Transactions:	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
(continued)								
e. names and family	M	P	A	M	A	P	A	P
f. occupational								
inquiries	A	P	A	M	A	A	A	P
g. asking meanings	P	P	A	A	A	A	A	A
h. food and meal-time								
courtesy	M	P	A	A	A	P	A	P
i. directions	M	M	A	A	A	A	A	P
j. goals and reasons	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A

2. Basic Maintenance Scenes:

a. food and supplies	M	P	A	A	A	P	M	P
b. shelter	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
c. communications	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
d. transportation	A	P	A	A	A	A	A	P
e. fees and taxes	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
f. permits	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
g. employment	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
h. theft or injury	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
i. entertainment	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
j. asking for								
interpretations	M	P	A	A	A	A	A	A

3. More Sensitive Behaviors:

	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
a. directing work	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
b. evaluating work	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
c. work-related								
grievances	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
d. emergency assistance	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
e. seeking protection	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
f. interacting with								
police	A	A	A	M	A	A	A	M
g. interacting with								
officials	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A

3. More Sensitive Behaviors:

(continued)	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
h. social and hospitality	M	P	A	A	A	P	A	P
i. festivals and occasions	A	M	A	A	A	A	A	M
j. religion	A	D	A	A	A	A	A	D

E. Roles Practiced:

K1, S1, S2, T1: none practiced, in light of the low levels of Output and Interaction

K2: Stranger, Guest, Host, Tourist, Customer, Vendor

T2: Stranger, Friend, Guest, Host, Tourist, Customer, Vendor (these apply to T2a only, but may be extrapolated to T2b, which builds on the Ayt Ayache section)

T3: Stranger, Friend, Guest, Host, Customer, Vendor

ii. Audience:	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2	T3
A.1. common background							
assumed	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N
2. language to be used in field	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3. typical learner academic	NS	Y	NS	N	NS	Y	Y
4. average educational level*							
5. language background expected	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
6. linguistics expected	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
7. previous operation in another culture expected	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
8. ethnographic background expected	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
9. number of students per year who will need the language in North America	0?	0?	2?	2?	2?	2?	2?

B.1.a. expected length							
(hours)	?	200?	?	?	?	200?	200
b. over how many							
weeks		8-30	?	?	?	8-30	8-30
c. time outside the							
class	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
2.a. settings							
(C=classroom,							
L=laboratory)	NS	C	NS	C	NS	CL	CL
b. equipment							
(R=recorder,							
P=projector)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	R	RP
3. class size	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
4. number of instructors							
(0 indicates self-							
instruction)	NS	NS	1	1-2	1	1	NS
5. qualifications of							
instructor**							
6. role of							
instructor***							

* None of the textbooks make explicit the educational level required, but, all are so written that at least the equivalent of a moderately sophisticated North American undergraduate is clearly assumed.

** The background required of instructors is generally not explicit, but S2 and T3 assume that one instructor will normally be a first-language speaker, and T2 assumes that the instructor is competent to provide grammatical explanation.

***None of the courses are explicit as to the division of instructor roles. It would be possible to estimate ratios at least for the Anglophone courses, but I prefer not to do so, especially since in most cases the textbook is meant to be adaptable to a variety of styles of teaching.

III. Structure of the Course:

1. Philosophy:	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2	T3
A. Rote work/Language Use:							
1.a. are students to memorize dialogues or texts	Y	NS	N	N	N	N	N
b. ratio memorized to self constructed dialogue	100?	-	-	-	-	-	-
2.a. are paradigms memorized or drilled	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
b. ratio of paradigm practice to meaningful sentences	5%	10%	50%	10%	50%	5%	5%
3.a. is vocabulary to be memorized or drilled	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y
b. ratio of memorized vocabulary to total course vocabulary	NS	-	NS	-	-	-	NS
c. how many lexical items is the student expected to acquire	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
B. Prescribed language/Spontaneous:							
1.a. are students asked to translate	Y	NS	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
b. ratio of translation to free composition and direct comprehension	*	*	100%	100%	100%	*	0%

*These textbooks provide much glossing, so this ratio cannot be calculated.

i. Philosophy: continued	<u>K1</u>	<u>K2</u>	<u>S1</u>	<u>S2</u>	<u>T1</u>	<u>T2</u>	<u>T3</u>
2.a. are there drills							
with open response	N	N	N	N	N	Y	Y
b. ratio closed to open							
response drills	100	100	100	100	100	50%	33%
3.a. is the student							
encouraged to go							
beyond the course	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
b. ratio of controlled							
to external language							
experience	100	100	100	100	100	100	80%

III.i. (continued)

C. Induction/Deduction	<u>K1</u>	<u>K2</u>	<u>S1</u>	<u>S2</u>	<u>T1</u>	<u>T2</u>	<u>T3</u>
1.a. is grammar							
explained in the							
body of the course	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
b. ratio of explanation							
to use		33%	55%	90%	55%	5%	15%
2.a. is target vocabulary							
glossed in the body							
of the course	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
b. proportion of words							
glossed	0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	90%
3.a. are target behaviors							
explained outside							
target language							
text*	N*	N*	N	N	N	N	Y
b. proportion of cultural							
presentation in language							
of instruction	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	30%

*But texts are translated!

III.i. (continued)

D. Sequencing:	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2	T3
1. is language presentation sequenced	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N
2. by complexity of structure	N	-	Y	Y	Y	-	-
3. are constructions of different type interspersed	N	-	Y	Y	Y	-	-
4. are all grammar points explained as they appear	-	N	-	-	-	Y	Y
5. is cultural presentation sequenced	N	Y	-	-	-	Y	Y
6. by assumed complexity	-	Y	-	-	-	Y	Y
7. are related behaviors introduced together	-	Y	-	-	-	Y	Y
8. are all cultural points explained as soon as mentioned	N	-	-	-	-	-	-
E. Style:							
1. does the course strive to be nonaversive	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y
2. does it foster internalization as well as habituation	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
3. is cognitive style considered	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
4.a.is there provision for alternative cognitive styles	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
b.is there instruction in cognitive strategies	N	N	N	N	N	N	N

III.1. (continued)	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2	T2b	T3
5. are students asked to learn a metalanguage	N	N	Y	N	Y	N		N
6. main language of presentation (E-English, F-French, T-target language, I-Interlanguage)	F	E	F	F	F	T		E
7. is a prespeech phase assumed*	N*	N	N*	N*	N*	N		N
8. at what point will student use target language in class (I-immediately)	I	I	NS	NS	NS	I		I
ii. Physical Characteristics:								
A.1. what audiovisuals are there (T-tapes, S-slides I-illustrations)	I	-	-	-	-	T		TS
2. are transcriptions, captions provided	Y	-	-	-	-	Y		Y
3. are audiovisuals integrated	Y	-	-	-	-	Y		Y
4. are they used throughout	N	-	-	-	-	Y		Y
5. is there a basis for interaction	N	-	-	-	-	N		N
B.1. what language references are included (V-vocabulary, G-grammar, P-paradigms)								
	G	G	V	VP	V	V	V	VG
2. do they cover material taught	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3. are they consistent with rest of course	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

III.ii. (continued)

4. are materials clear to nonlinguists	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
5.a. are they separate from body of course (P-in part)	Y	N	P	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
b. are students referred to them	Y	-	N	-	N	N	N	Y

C. This section asks about cultural reference materials.
Except for the inclusion in several of ethnographic texts
and descriptions in Berber, these do not exist.

D.	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
1. is a textbook included	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2. is there a student workbook	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
3. is there a teacher manual	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
4. is there a resource book	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
5. is there a collection of texts	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
E.1.a. topics per "unit"	2-3	3	2-3	1-4	1-2	4	NA	3
b. time per "unit"	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	5hrs
2.a. are "units" subdivided	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
b. are subdivisions regular	-	Y	Y	-	-	N	N	Y
3.a. is each "unit" an integrated whole	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
b. are "units" modular (M) or sequential (S)	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S

IV. Use of the Course:	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2a	T2b	T3
A.1. does the course rest rest on a thorough analysis of:								
a. phonology	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y
b. inflectional morphology	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y
c. sentence-level syntax	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y
d. discourse structure	N	N	N	N	N	N		Y
e. derivation, semantics	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y
2. theoretical orientation (A-Arabist, S-Structuralist, T-Tagmemic, G-Generative, N-Neutral)	A	S	A	A	A	N		G
3. does the course rest rest on a thorough analysis in:								
a. nonverbal communication	N	N	N	N	N	N		N
b. social structure	Y	N	N	N	N	Y		Y
c. mores	Y	N	N	N	N	Y		Y
d. life-style	Y	N	N	N	N	Y		Y
e. traditions	N	N	N	N	N	N		N
4. theoretical orientation	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		NA
5. are statements consistent and accurate	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y

IV.A. (continued)	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2	T3
B.1. is there evidence of careful planning	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2. is choice of dialect and culture appropriate*	Y	?	Y	?	*	*	*
3. is textbook appropriate to intended audience	Y	N	?	?	?	T	T
(there is some question as to identity of audience!)							
4. is pace appropriate**		**	Y	**	**	**	Y
5. are components integrated	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6. has the course been successfully tested	Y	?	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
C.1. is it suitable for various settings	Y	Y	?	?	?	Y	Y
2.a. is too much left to the instructor	N	N	?	?	?	N	N
b. is there too little freedom for the instructor	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
c. are omission and restructuring of material possible	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	N
d. are materials adequate without supplementation	Y	?	?	?	?	Y	Y

*I cannot judge for the "Tamazight" dialects.

**I cannot judge pace.

IV.C. (continued)	K1	K2	S1	S2	T1	T2	T3
3. is linguistic creativity stressed	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
4. are structures reinforced outside unit where introduced	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
5. is form/frequency of student evaluation specified	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
6. are there supplementary materials for problems affecting only a minority of learners	N	N	N	N	N	N	N

Sections D-F of Section IV cover such questions as how ready the student will be for the field, what supplementary materials exist and are needed, and ranking of the courses. I feel this is best handled in individual reviews; for these see below. The final section, IV.G., pertains to the reviewer; since all courses are being reviewed by the same person, this information need be provided only once:

- IV.G.1. name of reviewer: Patrick R. Bennett
 2. institutional affiliation Dept. of African Languages & Literature, University of Wisconsin-Madison
 3. qualifications:
 a. experience in linguistic analysis: 22 yrs.
 b. experience in ethnography: no practical experience
 c. experience in language pedagogy: 20 yrs.
 d. proficiency in target language: I have only used Berber in comparative research
 e. experience in target culture: none
 f. preferred teaching methodology: eclectic; structure-centered, Aural/Oral Interaction-focused, stressing linguistic creativity
 g. experience teaching target language: none

Given that I have no practical proficiency in Berber, I might not seem the ideal reviewer. However, I have worked extensively with Semitic languages and have experience of a wide range of language courses; in addition, through my comparative work I am fairly familiar with the general structure of Berber languages

Before proceeding to the individual course review summaries, a few words on the questionnaire. Since it was first developed, a number of problems have been observed. Unlike some, I do not consider its length and detail a drawback. Certainly, it takes some time to go through a set of course materials and abstract the necessary information - for me, an average of about two hours per course. It would take a little

less time to handle a course one had taught, but not much less. This, however, is time well spent. The teacher trying to choose among competing materials would need at least that much time; with reviews of this depth the teacher can at least narrow the field of candidates fairly quickly.

There are some genuine drawbacks in the performance ratings. To some extent, this is due to problems with the Performance Chart on which it was based. Biersteker and I have made several important changes which should eventually be included in a revised questionnaire. Perhaps insoluble is another aspect of these ratings, however: Unless one has used the course, or tested students who have been through it, estimates of performance rest on very shaky ground indeed. One must look at what the course implies its products can do, and then gauge how realistic the compiler's expectations are.

Another serious problem, already mentioned in Bennett and Biersteker, "On Categorizing Courses," is that most existing course materials are not explicit in providing answers to some of these questions. I cannot fairly judge the linguistic credentials of a compiler whose history I do not know. I cannot estimate pace where the compiler does not indicate how long each lesson will take. Of the course materials reviewed here, T3 is the most explicit, and the compiler is the one best known to me. This makes a fair and accurate review more difficult.

Most conspicuous of all in this set of reviews is the vast difference in structure and expectations between the Anglophone and Francophone textbooks. Although no two

approaches are identical (not even S1 and T1, which share the same compiler and nearly the same title!), the family resemblance is clear. The French works focus on grammar/translation, with apparently the assumption that aural/oral work and interaction will be supplied outside the classroom, by visiting the market. The U.S. courses emphasize drills and conversational material. This questionnaire was designed primarily for English-medium courses of the past thirty or so years; applying it to forty-year-old French-medium courses reveals the degree to which it is specialized. I do not see this as a drawback to the questionnaire. Rather, it points up my contention that materials designed for significantly different audiences should not be used except in emergency.

With these exceptions, the questionnaire has been easy to use; I trust it may also be informative for anyone who may actually require information on the available range of Berber courses. Very few revisions (apart from those mentioned and some minor reordering of individual items) are planned at present; one probably will be a restructuring to give a programmed sequence which can be conveniently computerized.

A. REVIEWS

B. K1 (de Vincennes/Dallet, Initiation a la langue berbere)

This two-volume course contains a wealth of material, including a quite usable reference grammar and a wide variety of textual material. It lacks a vocabulary (although the introduction claims that one was planned), but there is an

excellent Kabyle-French dictionary of the same dialect by one of the co-authors. The dictionary should be readily accessible - in France. There is also Dallet's study of the Kabyle verb, which is the basis of the verbal analysis in the course and is mentioned therein. For Kabyle (of various dialects) there are now available numerous literary texts with which the course could be supplemented.

Unfortunately, I do not believe a North American student using this course would come out prepared for the field. It needs a lot of additional oral work and a greater conversational focus. As a supplement and guide to interaction while in the field, it just might work; as a structure course it would be quite adequate.

If I had to teach Kabyle, I would use this work - but not alone. I would begin the student with K2 and run through it fairly quickly, for the conversational elements. Then I would shift into some of the textual and grammatical material from this course, to supply greater depth than K2 can give. Certainly, I would want to supplement the combination with considerable creative oral interaction and activities like many of those assigned in T3. It would, in fact, be useful (if slightly inaccurate in spots) to use some of the T3 slide sequences as conversational stimuli.

B. K2 (Applegate, Spoken Kabyle)

The way this textbook is structured--around a single, continuous, culture-focused conversation--is intriguing, works

well as a means of holding interest, and deserves success. Unfortunately, it will not prepare the average learner for the field. As the author says, at the end of the course, "You will know how to identify yourself and how to ask for information." The students will NOT be able to say what they need to handle basic maintenance. This is fine if they are willing and able to use French or Arabic for maintenance and Berber for fun, but that is no way to run a language course.

It should also be noted that other materials on the language are compatible with K1 but not with this, all the more reason for using this course only in the type of combination suggested in the review of K1. There would, however, be an alternative. For a student already familiar with another Berber language (at a survival level or above), this course would be useful as a means of adapting to Kabyle. There is enough uniformity within Central Berber that knowledge of a "Tamazight" dialect, for instance, would supply many of this course's deficiencies.

B. S1 (Laoust, Course de berbère marocain)

This course is usable only as a reference grammar, and given its scarcity it is not very useful even for that purpose. It could also be used as a structure course, provided one were not too fussy about up-to-the-minute linguistic analysis. For its age and type it is good, but not for here and now. It does not teach practical use, its transcription is dated, and its organization is not suitable for the classroom.

B. S2 (Aspinion, Apprenons le berbère)

This is in many ways a pleasant work but again totally inadequate outside the field. In the field, and supplemented with text collections and much conversation, it would certainly help; it is an excellent reference grammar or structure course. Its presentation of grammar is very clear, with full exemplification and very thorough indexing; in these respects it is a model for other compilers of Berber grammars. There are text collections, and even dictionaries, to go with it. Unfortunately, they are very hard to obtain, nearly all very old, and quite incompatible with the arrangement and orthographic conventions of this course.

In discussing K1, I said at one point, "if I had to teach Kabyle..." Well, if I had to teach Shilha, I would not. This book is much better than S1 but not an appropriate language-teaching device. If I HAD to teach Shilha- and I hope I never do until usable materials exist - I would teach the student "Tamazight" using T3, give a structure course in Shilha using Aspinion, and then lock the student in a room with a Shilha speaker for a few weeks. Quite seriously, this is a language for which good modern conversational materials are badly needed.

B. T1 (Laoust, Cours de berbère marocain)

Most of what was said about S1 (by the same author) applies here. This book is more useful, however. It is a much better reference grammar than S1 and has in fact been used as a

reference in a recent North American course. In addition, it contains a set of texts which would be a valuable supplement to a "Tamazight" course in a compatible dialect. I would not recommend its use for other purposes, however. Even for a structure course there are better materials at hand.

B. T2 (Abdel-Massih, A Course in Spoken Tamazight)

This is a good course, all the better for the fact that the author has published a totally compatible and equally available reference grammar covering the same two dialects, and a short but very usable dictionary. The dictionary (the only lexical source available) is not quite compatible in orthography and covers only Ayt Seghrouchen, whereas the course and reference grammar spend more time on Ayt Ayache. However, it has both Berber-English and English-Berber sections, full grammatical information, and several classified appendices, making it the most useful Berber dictionary (barring the fact it is not pocket-sized) around.

In my opinion its interest and value are enhanced by the fact that it gives two 'dialects' for the price of one. The Ayt Seghrouchen portion cannot be taught independently; it assumes the student has been through the first portion or at least acquired some Berber language); it could be omitted; but it is valuable in that it gives the student some preparation for the variety of dialect differentiation to be found within Tamazight. The student may be a bit confused in the classroom by the switch, but there should be less problem in the field.

And with this course the student probably would be field-ready in at least one dialect.

If I had to teach "Tamazight" - this is more like it, there is competition. Either this or T3 would be usable. T2 is more legible and simpler to use; there is little difference in compatibility with other resources. The Ait Mgild of T3 is reasonably compatible with either Abdel-Massih's reference grammar or another reference work focused on Ait Ndhir and again readily available. Neither one is all that compatible with the Ayt Seghrouchen dictionary, nor too far from compatibility. T3 has the very useful tape-slide programs, as well as more and better drills and interactive activities. One could again work up a rather nice combined approach, beginning with T3 and entering T2 about halfway through the Ayt Ayache segment, thus getting the benefit of T3's structure and T2's texts. If only one were to be chosen, either would do; I personally would lean - very slightly - toward T3.

B. T3 (Harries, Tamazight Basic Course)

Last but by no means least, we have a well-structured, usable course, which would prepare the student for the field, is accessible, and is moderately compatible with other materials. It is not without drawbacks - single-spaced typing makes it hard to read, and the grammar sketch is overly technical. But it is very culturally aware and interaction focused.

Much of what I would say about it came out in the comparison with T2. I will not repeat the discussion except to say again that this course wins, by a narrow margin.

Overall Recommendations

For an important and numerous language cluster with fairly high priority, there are surprisingly few Berber courses and shockingly few usable ones. There is apparently nothing easily accessible for Tuareg; Applegate is said to have compiled a Tuareg course, but it has not been published. There are French materials, not available for review to me; in any case, the Francophone courses of which I am aware are uniformly disappointing when North American standards are applied. Tuareg is a widespread language, relatively well documented; first priority in the Berber field should be compilation of adequate teaching resources, preferably focused on the dialects of Niger. Tuareg is different enough from Central Berber that the student should not try to learn "Tamazight" and then try to adapt!

Next in priority is a good Shilha course and dictionary. It is a large language, different enough from "Tamazight" and Kabyle that conversion from one of those to Shilha is not very practical (although perhaps possible). The materials on Shilha are old and inaccessible, although S2 could serve as a working reference grammar until a usable Anglophone grammar could be completed. I am aware, of course, of Applegate's structural sketch of Shilha; that, however, because of problems of style and orthography is not suitable as a reference work.

Third in priority is Rif. The Rif grammars extant are mostly Spanish, archaic, or both, and all are unusable. Lexical resources exist (in Spanish, and perhaps out of print, but

usable and bidirectional), but a good reference grammar and a course are needed.

We could use a Kabyle course in English, but there is much less urgency. Extant materials are not good for North American purposes but can be adapted, and the language is numerically less important than Shilha or "Tamazight." As for "Tamazight," ultimately I would like to see a totally compatible, usable, portable (for field use), dialectally uniform course, reference grammar, dictionary, and text collection. But we can wait. At least for "Tamazight" all the parts exist, even though they are not totally compatible and cannot be slipped in one's pocket on a field trip.

Several other Berber languages exist, some quite distinct from these, but there is no real need for courses on them. The majority will attract one or two researchers every fifty years, and fewer tourists. Even for Tuareg, Shilha, Rif, Kabyle, and "Tamazight" the number of students will be very small; for less important areas in Berber we cannot afford materials.

It is important to point out, however, that in evaluating course needs for language clusters such as Berber it is not appropriate to say that, because a good set of Berber materials exists (two, in fact), Berber has been "done" and we can go on to the next priority language. The Harries "Tamazight" course will not really teach one Rif, and certainly not Tuareg. It may be that the individual languages within these clusters should have their priorities evaluated individually, or else some closely related languages assigned low individual priorities

should be reevaluated as "dialect clusters"!

CHAPTER 11: THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED
MATERIALS

William R. Leben, Stanford University

The MSU conference has witnessed a number of disagreements over the role of some of our traditional language teaching activities, among them grammar instruction, drills, and forcing the student to speak. I am confident that these differences can be resolved, and I have my own opinions on the subject. But I do not intend to share them here because I think the ultimate solution is to gather more data rather than more opinions. One of the probable outcomes of the conference is that we will all become more attuned to the effects that the different teaching techniques appear to have on our classes, and perhaps as we will develop more careful proficiency testing procedures, we will develop the ability to be quite objective about the success of one or another teaching practice.

My purpose here is to discuss something on which I think everyone agrees: the need for new language materials that are accessible to our students. I was asked to focus on intermediate level materials. I assume almost any intermediate student will want and need two sorts of contact with the target language: spoken and written. I will focus on the written.

What I have to say is purely anecdotal, based on my own experiences in producing written materials for intermediate and advanced Hausa. I have attempted to provide comprehensible input for the student who has completed at least a year of work in the language but who is not quite up to deciphering large

numbers of "authentic" materials. As Russell Schuh noted at the conference, Hausa is truly a written language and is becoming more so as the level of literacy rises in Nigeria, but there are huge cultural differences between Hausas and most of our students of Hausa. If one looks at the things that currently availableand authentic, most are not very accessible to intermediate and advanced students. Let me give some examples.

In Nigeria, there are two or three regular Hausa language newspapers, but they are very difficult to read, even for someone like me, who has been studying Hausa for twenty years (although, granted, using what were probably all the wrong methods!). The principal problems I encounter in reading Hausa newspapers are vocabulary--too many unfamiliar words--and what might loosely be termed elliptical constructions--in which grammatically or culturally important information has been left up to the reader to supply.

Another common source of authentic Hausa, alluded to at the conference in other discussions, is folk tales. These are quite good, and they can be rather easily modified to become more comprehensible to students, as Bagari, Knox, and I tried to show in our Manual of Hausa Idioms. But students become quite bored with them after a rather short time, due, I think, to their simple format and their treatment of a limited number of cultural concepts.

Two years ago, I arrived in Kano, Nigeria, with a group of twelve U.S. students, for whom I served as language coordinator in a six-week intensive advanced Hausa program,

sponsored by the Association of African Studies Programs, funded by the U.S. Department of Education Group Projects Abroad, and directed by John N. Paden of Northwestern University. We were confronted with a lack of appropriate materials, with not much time to prepare them. We knew we wanted to integrate the formal language training with the cultural experiences the students would be having during the program. Among the cultural experiences were prearranged trips--to village markets, boxing matches, a local blacksmith, traditional cloth dyers, the palace of the mir of Kano, and so on. We wanted to prepare students for what we thought they would see and for the Hausa they probably would hear.

To deal with this situation, typically I would round up some Hausa friend, go and have the experience myself some days before the group went out, and play the straight man asking questions that the typical naive stranger might ask. Afterward, this friend and I would reconstruct what happened, amplifying, compressing, romanticizing, and so forth, as desired. What resulted was a little account or dialog that would then be presented to students in our formal classes and which prepared them to some extent for the vocabulary and cultural concepts they would be encountering. I found this technique not only successful for generating fresh material but also a lot of fun, besides.

After the intensive summer program, when I returned to the United States, I began to realize how special that summer had been. We had collected quite an assortment of texts and

dialogs that conveyed the excitement of Hausa culture, from a point of view geared to North Americans. Furthermore, my collaborators in the program included three Hausa speakers, on the staff of the Centre for the Study of Nigerian Languages at Bayero University, Kano, who had obtained advanced degrees in Hausa studies, two of them the M.A. and the third a Ph.D. from Indiana University--an extremely well-qualified group. I proposed to the Department of Education International Research and Studies Program to return to Nigeria the following summer to work with these same Hausa staff members to convert our classroom materials into an intermediate text. Because I was able to pay for my transportation and living expenses out of other grants, (for research on other Nigerian languages), the budget for our Hausa textbook project was minimal--under \$8,000.

Thus, in summer, 1983, we reassembled the same team that had taught in 1982 and we devoted half our time for two months to expanding our written materials to cover a truly significant portion of Hausa culture. One day, at the beginning, we sat down and brainstormed about the important aspects of life that would probably befuddle the North American visiting a Hausa region. We came up with around 25 different topics--about ideal for the number of chapters one would expect to see in a text--encompassing life, death, religion, courtship, marriage, the judicial system, food, fun and games, holidays, clothing, carpentry, weaving, and quite a few others. We divided these topics among our team of four, each responsible for writing up something representative of the culture on the points assigned.

To guarantee freshness, we agreed to attempt to base what we wrote on an incident that had actually happened to us. Here, there is probably a good amount of room for improvement. Text produced by one person is likely to be less lively and more academic than something produced by the sort of collaboration involved when a group of writers sit down to author jointly an account of a shared experience.

, Once the accounts were written, the entire group read, criticized, and revised them. We added grammatical and vocabulary notes --and although I had feared the consequences of doing this in committee, it turned out very well. Thanks to the many disagreements that one would expect to hear among a group of scholars representing different backgrounds and dialect areas, our annotations are less prescriptive and more representative of the language in general.

Now that the text has been assembled, we have the good fortune to have been granted funds for yet another advanced Hausa summer institute at Bayero University, and so field testing of our produced will take place among another group of twelve or thirteen. Also, the International Research and Studies Program has once again agreed to provide funds (once again, in the vicinity of \$8,000), which we will use to revise the text.

To conclude, I think three special factors make this sort of project feasible. First, all work is done on site, using a team of highly qualified specialists. Producing the text in committee rather than individually adds liveliness and variety.

Basing the text on actual experiences can add spontaneity and realism. Second, if one piggy-backs such an enterprise on other projects, this will help keep the budget very low. Obviously, if the other projects are related (like the plan to carry on the intensive Hausa summer institute simultaneously with the development of materials), so much the better. Finally, at the intermediate and advanced levels, there is no good way to teach the language--at least an African language--without teaching the culture. Organizing the text explicitly around cultural topics helps to ensure that difficult grammatical points or large numbers of strange vocabulary words will be encountered only when they help relate some important cultural point.

CHAPTER 12: ON TEACHING TONE COMPREHENSION

James E. Redden, Southern Illinois University

It is a common belief that comprehension must precede production when learning a language. As with all half-truths, there is a modicum of truth in this since it is so in the majority of cases. However, when the language has a type of system that does not exist in the native language or a problem that is difficult to hear for acoustic reasons, it is often that case that production precedes comprehension.

Many years of training teachers of English as a foreign language have taught me that upper-intermediate and advanced students often can produce phonological items that they usually cannot recognize in context. Such student teachers usually have great difficulty in recognizing English rhythm, stress, and intonation patterns. They may well "know" every item in a sentence but not understand the meaning of the sentence. I recall a case of foreign students being told to drive four miles south of our university and turn right at a greenhouse in order to find the way to a department picnic. They drove twenty miles south and never found a house painted green--because they did not recognize the marking of English compound nouns by stress and consequently did not understand that a greenhouse is not a house painted green.

The same can be true of Japanese students when using English vowels. They often can produce all the English vowels when asked to do so, but when they meet these same vowels in

context at conversation speed, they cannot distinguish the inner and outer, or tense and lax, vowels. This shows quite clearly that one can acquire various phonological items before being able to comprehend them in context.

Speakers of European languages have numerous problems when learning a tone language. Since they have no basis for recognizing or distinguishing syllable tone, they have to build a complete new type of system into their nerves and brain. In some ways, this is a rather simple thing to do, but a number of severe learning and recognition problems have to be overcome in some languages, especially in those of the West Coast of Africa. Since the tone system of some African languages is far simpler than those of the West Coast, many teachers and linguists tend to dismiss the problems of mastering tone systems as just another difficulty in teaching phonology and one which takes no special care.

Anyone who has ever tried to teach a speaker of a syllable-timed language, English rhythm, stress, and intonation, knows this is a long-term, difficult process. I have heard many university professors with no knowledge of linguistics talk about rude, insulting behavior of foreign students. It is usually the case that the student has not understood what the English speaker has said, even though he "knew" every item in the sentence, or that the foreign student has produced a wrong stress and/or intonation pattern. Neither the native English speaker, who has no knowledge of phonology, nor the foreign speaker of English understands the nature of the problem--and

often both think that the other is either impolite, rude, or worse.

Some African tones are difficult to hear for acoustic reasons. African vowels are in general higher than those of English. An "u" is difficult to hear because the first formant (the harmonic augmented in the throat cavity) is much weaker than the second formant (the harmonic augmented in the mouth cavity). Because of these two factors, speakers of European languages tend to hear the second formant of an "u" as a high tone, no matter what that fundamental tone is. It takes a lot of experience for a speaker of English to be able to recognize tones on an "u". When there is a syllabic nasal in the middle of a word, this is especially difficult for Europeans to hear. Not only do we have little or nothing in our language backgrounds to help us hear this, but also the usual formant transitions between vowels and following nasals make us oblivious to such "small" formant transitions. English speakers are accustomed to having amid-central glide after short vowels before nasals and a lengthening of the first element of diphthongs before nasals. To speakers of English a tone change on a syllabic nasal in the middle of a word sounds just like the usual transitions between these sounds, and we therefore find it exceedingly difficult to distinguish phonemic differences in tones in these environments.

This is very important in some West Coast languages. In Twi, several forms of each verb are distinguished by tone on an interior syllabic nasal. Negative, imperative, negative imperative, subjunctive, and negative subjunctive are so

distinguished. Consequently, a speaker of English often "knows" every item in a Twi sentence, yet does not understand what the sentence means because of missing the tone on an interior syllabic nasal and therefore not knowing whether the sentence is negative, imperative, or subjunctive.

Linguists who know one or more African language often dismiss these as the usual problems for European speakers in learning a tone language, but they are not just the "usual" problems. The foreign speaker of English takes a very long time to master English rhythm, stress, and intonation, and the speaker of a European language takes a very long time to master tone on certain segments such as interior syllabic nasals. We are doing our students a disservice by not recognizing that there are special problems here.

Many native English speakers find African English unintelligible. The rhythm, stress, and intonation--and also vowel quality--make African English opaque to many speakers of English who know nothing of those varieties of English. I was once given a tape by a colleague who told me that it contained Twi and asked me to tell him what the tape was about. It contained Ghanaian English, which my colleague did not even recognize as such. The secretaries in my department regularly call me when there is an African calling long-distance because they cannot "understand" the English. The reverse is true of Europeans speaking an African language--the phonology is such that the African language becomes opaque.

How do we remedy this kind of situation? Two colleagues

at the MSU conference told me the students need more exposure. This is simply not the case. Students need special help to get over these "blind spots." A European can "speak" an African language for years and not be aware of certain phonological features--and resultant meaning distinctions. We are failing as applied linguists if we do not recognize these as special problems. The only solution I have found thus far is to use numerous minimal-pair sentences and to drill them extensively. It is pointless to say that meaningful contexts will solve this problem because the European speakers do not recognize the meaningful contexts for reasons of phonological blindness.

At the conference, I talked to several people about how others have attempted to overcome blind spots in the phonology of target languages caused by "small" differences in formant transitions which are not significant in the first language. No one has had a viable suggestion other than drilling minimal-pair sentences. Suggestions that meaningful exposure in context is the answer are clearly incorrect because the first-language blind spots make the target-language differences obscure or opaque. Suggestions that meaningful exposure must be the answer because native speakers learn these differences in this way overlook the fact that an adult learner does not have the extensive amount of time a child does, and that such basic distinctions as negative and imperative cannot be left until an advanced level of mastery of the language is achieved before being able to use the language in context. And, more important, we cannot continue to overlook the unusual acoustic reasons that

make these distinctions especially difficult. Suggestions that it is just a matter of learning a tone system ignore the real problem.

Current theories that adults will in time acquire adequate mastery of phonology if given meaningful exposure do not face reality. Why should we be content to let our students misunderstand and miscommunicate until they have had many years of exposure in a language? We have to give our low- and intermediate- level students the ability to communicate accurately on such things as negatives, imperatives, and subjunctives. Since the phonological feature distinguishing these are especially difficult for unusual acoustic reasons, we must devise unusual means of speeding up the acquisition of these items so necessary for even low- level communication. Since no one yet has a better way than intensive drilling of minimal-pair sentences, we will have to use that means until we can find something better.

CHAPTER 13: THE GUIDELINES

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Purpose of Guidelines

The guidelines given below were proposed during the final morning of the conference, following the presentations of the papers included in this volume. The recommendations were then written up by David Dwyer and subsequently discussed and reworked by the above authors at the 1985 meeting of the Conference on African linguistics (Yale University). While these guidelines can not be said to represent a consensus in the strictest sense of the word, they do, nonetheless represent areas where broad agreement was achieved.

These guidelines are intended to serve the following purposes:

- a) Provide some standard upon which language course materials can be evaluated. Thus these guidelines can be used to determine whether existing materials are adequate or not, and whether newer materials are called for.
- b) Provide guidelines for the construction of new materials.

The force of these guidelines comes from their broad support. If older course materials do not meet the conditions specified by the guidelines, they are not likely to be used. On the other hand, if new materials do, they are likely to be used.

The Guidelines

The guidelines listed below are broken down into four categories: (A) the process by which languages are acquired, (B) proficiency goals for students of African languages, (C) materials' guidelines and (D) other recommendations. Both the process and goals' recommendations are general statements of direction from which more specific guidelines for materials' development and evaluations can be derived.

A: Process

(1) Emphasis on Acquisition.

The importance of the distinction between conscious, discursive knowledge and unconscious, nondiscursive knowledge was generally accepted by conference participants as crucial to the understanding language acquisition. When applied to language learning, this leads to an opposition between "learning" and "acquisition" as characterized by Krashen (in this volume).

With this distinction, the conferees adopted the position that proficiency in a foreign language can best be achieved by placing emphasis on language acquisition (see Krashen paper for arguments). Within this framework, the kind of linguistic knowledge gained through learning is seen by most participants as playing a supportive role in making "comprehensible input" more comprehensible as well as serving what Krashen terms the

"output monitor."

To focus on acquisition as opposed to learning is, in Saussurian terms, to focus on parole as opposed to langue. That is, language acquisition is associated with language as it is used to communicate something by someone to someone. In other words, an acquisition oriented approach will expose the student to parole, whether spoken or written, whose purpose is to communicate information rather than to exemplify langue.

However, in order for acquisition to take place, this input must become comprehensible to the student, by the student, with of course the help of the teacher and course materials applying what ever resources at hand. These include knowledge of the context, knowledge of the structure of the input "text" and knowledge of the structure of the langue. The Swaffar contribution to this volume points out many techniques that can be used in rendering the input comprehensible.

It also follows that well-designed course materials should draw its materials from those (representative) areas of the culture which the learner is likely to encounter, such as those suggested by Maw in this volume.

B. Goals

- (2) Course Materials should aim toward a threshold level as a minimum.

Course materials should prepare the student to reach a point where he can continue to acquire the language independently. A commonly accepted definition of this level is, however, yet to be achieved though we note several roughly

equivalent definitions. Ek (1980:13), who has developed the most comprehensive definition of the threshold level, defines the threshold as follows:

... The threshold level or T-level will be the lowest level of general foreign-language ability to be recognized.... General ability will allow learners to maintain themselves in every day situations including those for which they have not been specifically trained. This means that as long as a learner has not mastered the ability to transfer what he has learned to new or partially new situations, his communication possibilities will be severely limited. In such cases he will be regarded as having reached a level of general language ability.

This threshold level corresponds roughly to the ACTFL (American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages) level of Intermediate Low, the FSI (Foreign Service Institute) level of S-2 and to a first year college language course of 150 contact hours.

What is now needed is a developing of greater specification of what should be included in these Basic Course Materials. Unlike the ACTFL and FSI evaluation metrics, the work on the threshold level by Ek (1976) contains a detailed outline of the "functions" and "notions" to be considered in such an introductory textbook. We further recommend that this outline be accepted as a working document, even though it needs to be realigned toward an African learning context.

What is also needed is a definition of "general language ability," somewhere in the area of an FSI S-3 or an ACTFL "intermediate high." Presumably this level should mark a competency level at which a student can (1) function, albeit with some difficulty in obtaining and offering information in

most situations, and (2) continue to develop his language skills without the need of focused language study. Such a definition should also (following Ek), contain a description of the sorts of things such intermediate textbooks ought to contain to help achieve this goal.

- (3) Students should be prepared to operate at a level which allows them to function linguistically in ordinary situations and to continue learning on their own.

This recommendation adds two points to the preceding one. First, students taking African languages should be trained at least to a level of "intermediate low." Second, in both teaching materials and courses, emphasis should be given to preparing students to be able to continue learning in an unsupervised field situation.

C. Materials

- (4) Author(s) should be explicit in their approach and in the decisions that go into the design of the text.

In the construction of a language textbook, the author(s) is/are confronted with a number of important decisions that must be settled before the textbook is actually written. These include matters of which dialect to use, which orthography to use, as well as the teaching methodology, lesson design, intended audience and expected goals. It is rarely the case in the design of African language textbooks that the author(s) provide an introductory statement in which these issues are presented and discussed and in which the rationale behind the author(s) decision is given. Such a statement provides the textbook users

with information about the character of the textbook: whether the dialect chosen is official, spoken widely or, if not, in the area where the learner intends to go, whether the orthography is in common use. Even though the textbook may be the only book available for that language, users will appreciate a statement by the author(s) on the methodology and orientation of the textbook. Further details are offered by the Bennett and Bierstecker article in this volume.

(5) Materials should be flexible and adaptable.

Even though a textbook author may have a clear idea of how a particular language should be presented and taught, and of a particular situation in which it will be used, the fact of the matter is that there are differences in perspective in how languages should be learned and different contexts in which they will be learned: directed - self-instructional; intensive - nonintensive, field - foreign. This fact, when coupled with a second fact that rarely will African language teachers have the luxury of selecting from more than one textbook, means that any new textbook should be written in such a way that it can be used by a variety of language teaching approaches and learning contexts.

(6) Any reference grammar should be bound in a separate volume.

This recommendation derives from the first recommendation-the emphasis on acquisition instead of learning. This physical separation enables both volumes to be used individually or concurrently according to teacher or student

wishes. With this in mind, the separation permits the separation of course materials which are intended as acquisition oriented from those that are learning oriented.

- (7) Great emphasis should be placed on including textual materials in course materials.

Again, following the first recommendation (that acquisition depends considerably on the providing of comprehensible input and on student "appropriation" of this input), one of the major tasks of a primary course materials is to provide large quantities of "texts" for such use.

Lacking a more specific term for comprehensible input, we put forth the term "textual materials." By this term we mean any sample of potential comprehensive input from the target language. Any such instance of parole, whether written or spoken, with or without visual cues, conforms to this definition of textual materials.

Although this is the area participants recommended should receive the most attention, it should be noted that currently this is an aspect of materials development which receives little attention and is in many instances ignored.

- (8) The textual materials should be communicatively oriented rather than structurally oriented.

The rationale behind this proposal derives not only from the first recommendation, but from the second and third as well. From the first recommendation is the argument that language acquisition (not learning) derives not from a knowledge

of the language structure but from acquiring the structure through comprehending "texts." Thus student needs are for textual materials that are authentic, that is are produced for the purposes of communication (by native speakers) and not for the purposes of illustrating grammatical points (see Swaffar paper in this volume for more detail). Authentic texts, however, are not necessarily comprehensible as they stand.

It is the responsibility of the materials writer and the language instructor to develop ways in which these "textual materials" become intelligible to the learner. This may include explanatory grammatical, vocabulary, and cultural notes (separated from the textual materials) and supportive target language texts. In addition, this will involve careful selection and ordering of presentation.

Furthermore, if the learner is to learn how to function in ordinary situations (the substance of recommendation 2), then the learner will have to sample texts from various ordinary situations. This is necessary to develop a versatile working vocabulary, cultural knowledge of these situations and to have an opportunity to practice communicating them as well. One listing of a set of functionally organized topics is given in the Maw paper in this volume.

(9) Habit-forming language drills should be deemphasized.

Drills which focus on teaching language structure have frequently been overemphasized, with some language course materials consisting of nothing but such drills. Nonetheless, drills can prove useful. For example, other types of drills can

be communicatively oriented so that they serve language acquisition as opposed to language learning. But these types of drills cannot play the central role in language learning that they have often been cast.

Other Recommendations

In addition to the recommendations concerning the development and design of African language learning materials, the conferees made the following recommendations.

- (10) A Teacher's Resources Book with focus on African context is needed.

Despite the vast structural differences from one African language to another and the considerable cultural differences found among their speakers, there exist a number of techniques and schemes which can be used for almost any language and which could be applicable to many common cultural situations found in Africa. This resource book would aid not only teachers, but learners engaged in self-instruction (see the Dihoff paper) and materials' writers as well.

- (11) There is a need to establish a clearinghouse for African language course materials.

Because language materials are often produced in small supply and often by obscure publishers (not to mention often unpublished), there is need to establish some centralized area where these materials can be collected and made available to potential users. The Center for Applied Linguistics has (since 1969) been publishing an annotated bibliography of African Language Materials. Other projects in materials documentations

have been carried out as well, such as the MSU Human, Institutional and Materials Resources for the Study of African Languages, not to mention the collections by most African Studies Centers in the United States of the language learning resources that they use in their African language programs. Nonetheless, there is no single collection in the United States of African language learning materials which individuals and institutions can consult and copy for language learning purposes.

(12) There is a great need to run workshops in the following areas.

a) Language Proficiency Levels.

There has been a good deal of discussion concerning the development and implementation of language proficiency levels for languages within Africa and elsewhere. During the Guidelines Conference the ACTFL (American Council of Foreign Language Teachers) proficiency guidelines were introduced as an example. While conferees were generally supportive of the development of such an evaluation metric, it became clear from correspondence following the conference that most members have serious concerns with the ACTFL approach itself. The question of language proficiency is further complicated by the large number of widely-spoken languages which Africanist language teaching community has to work with. Therefore, a workshop/conference, in which proficiency guidelines are discussed, evaluated and developed is of the highest priority. In addition to Africanist language teachers and linguists, participants should include the proponents for various proficiency metrics, language teaching specialists and policy makers.

b) Language Teaching Workshop.

The participants at the guidelines conference appreciated the presentations on language learning theory and methodology. In response to this they recommended that a future workshop be held which focuses on approaches to language teaching methodology. Workshops of this sort will have the effect of making a greater variety of language teaching methodology available to the African language

teachers in this country, as well as bring these individuals together in a situation where a greater consensus in language teaching can develop.

Summary

In summary, the participants recommended that the ideal beginning course materials should have the following qualities:

- a) Enable the student to reach a threshold level of language competence.
- b) Contain an introduction in which goals, choice of dialects and orthographies, approach, contexts and so forth are made explicit.
- c) Be flexible enough to be used in a variety of learning situations including college classrooms, intensive study and self-study.
- d) Place a strong emphasis on the use of "authentic" textual materials selected to illustrate the kinds of situations a visitor is likely to encounter. These textual materials and related exercises should introduce the vocabulary and types of responses needed to develop competency in that specific area. Such textual materials should also be accompanied by explanatory notes, complementary texts and exercises aimed at increasing comprehension.
- e) Materials should deemphasize habit-forming structural drills, rather drills should aim toward developing an awareness of phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic distinctions and a capacity to produce them.

In addition, they recommended the following:

- a) A teacher's resource book for african languages.
- b) A clearinghouse for African language course materials.
- c) Workshops in the following areas:

Language Proficiency Levels

Language Teaching Methodology.